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THE CAPITOL

The national Capitol at Washington is not surpassed for beauty or nobility by any public building in the world. Its dome, which is over three hundred feet high, is surmounted by a bronze statue of Freedom.

COMMUNITY LIFE AND CIVIC PROBLEMS

BY

HOWARD COPELAND HILL

HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCE
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL



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TO THE MEMORY OF
H. I. H.

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5-4-31 IWIN

THE AMERICAN'S CREED

1 1 1

I believe in the United States of America as a government of the people, by the people, for the people; whose just powers are derived from the consent of the governed; a democracy in a republic; a sovereign nation of many sovereign states; a perfect union, one and inseparable; established upon those principles of freedom, equality, justice, and humanity for which American patriots sacrificed their lives and fortunes.

I therefore believe it is my duty to my country to love it; to support its constitution; to obey its laws; to respect its flag; and to defend it against all enemies.

The American's Creed, written in 1918 by William Tyler Page, Clerk of the House of Representatives, was selected from among the thousands which were submitted as the best brief statement of American political beliefs and principles. Mr. Page was awarded the \$1000 prize offered by the city of Baltimore, and his statement was publicly accepted by the Speaker of the House of Representatives as the National Creed.

PREFACE

This book is an outgrowth of classroom needs and experience. For three years it was used in mimeograph form, wholly or in part, as a text in the laboratory schools of The University of Chicago. It served also in a similar capacity in other schools in different parts of the country. In the light of the suggestions and criticisms of the pupils and the teachers who have thus used it, it has been recast and rewritten a number of times. In its present form, therefore, it stands as a classroom product.

In writing this book I have tried to do four things: first, to explain a few of the important institutions and problems of modern life; second, to make civics interesting and concrete by a liberal use of illustrative material; third, to establish lasting ideas about the topics discussed by treating them at some length rather than in fragmentary fashion; and fourth, to inspire boys and girls with a desire to do their part in bettering their own groups and neighborhood as well as their state, their country, and the world.

The conception underlying the book is the Biblical proposition that no man liveth to himself alone. All his life he dwells, works, and plays with other men who are associated with him for reasons like his own in various kinds of groups. In short, human life is group life. Man enters the world as a member of the family group; as a child he receives education in a school group; for religious solace and inspiration he usually depends on the church group; in daily occupation he works with others in industrial groups; to secure safety and certain services he is a member of political groups. His dependence on others and the dependence of others on him,

which not only cause these group relations but arise from them, are the most important facts in human life.

The book is divided into four parts. In Part One are treated the chief characteristics of group life as they appear in the family, the school, the church, and the local community. In Part Two are discussed some of the more important problems of community welfare. Part Three deals with the elementary phases of industrial society. Part Four is devoted to a discussion of government and political parties; since the chief functions of government are brought out in the first three parts of the text, the last division is confined largely to an explanation of its organization.

Care has been exercised to give proper acknowledgment to the sources from which this book is drawn, and while the possibility of error is multiplied in a work which has been rewritten as many times as this, it is hoped that no failure to give credit has occurred. For helpful criticisms my thanks are due, in the first place, to those who have used the text in its preliminary form. In this respect I am especially indebted to Miss Edith Shepherd of the University Junior High School, who for two years has made the book the basis of work in English. For contributions to the book-lists and for other valuable suggestions I am under deep obligations to Miss Hannah Logasa, librarian of the University High School, and to Professor S. A. Leonard of the University of Wisconsin. For helpful comments arising from a reading of various portions of the manuscript, grateful acknowledgment is made to Principal Morton Snyder, Park School, Baltimore, Maryland; Professor A. H. Sanford, State Normal School, La Crosse, Wisconsin; Professor Carl E. Pray, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan; Professor S. C. Parker, The University of Chicago; and Dr. Charles H. Judd, Director of the School of Education, The University of Chicago. To Professors R. E. Park and L. S. Lyon of The University of Chicago, to Miss Frances B. Wells of the Austin High School, Chicago, and to Miss E. Mabel Skinner, Chair-

man of the Civics Department, Washington Irving High School, New York City, I acknowledge my indebtedness for counsel resulting from a careful reading of much of the proof. I have also profited greatly from numerous suggestions received from Professor R. M. Tryon, School of Education, The University of Chicago, who read with discriminating and stimulating criticism the entire manuscript. Much time and thought have been given to the selection of illustrations which would have real educational value; for help in this difficult undertaking I owe a great deal to the advice and experience of Mr. Edward K. Robinson of Ginn and Company. To Mr. Roswell T. Pearl and others of the editorial staff of the same firm I am also grateful, not only for countless worthy suggestions but for their unfailing courtesy during the progress of the book through the press. Finally, for invaluable assistance in matters of both content and style, I am deeply indebted to my wife.

HOWARD COPELAND HILL

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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TO THE TEACHER

For reasons pointed out in the preface this book is organized as a study of the chief group relations of an ordinary person. Since in a large sense one becomes a member of the community when he is born, the topic "Myself and Others" is first studied. After this introductory survey of the meaning of community life various groups are taken up in the order in which one usually becomes a member of them: the family; the school; the church; the local community (in which one joins in a more active sense after leaving school); the working group; and, lastly, the political group. This genetic organization enables pupils to understand the order in which the topics are arranged. By occasionally emphasizing and explaining the organization, the teacher can give to the subject a unity and clearness which cannot be secured otherwise.

Each topic is treated in accordance with the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association. First, the need for community action in meeting modern social problems is pointed out; second, the work of the most important agencies which deal with these problems is explained; and, third, the responsibility of the individual in assisting in their solution is emphasized.

Since the present is the outgrowth of the past it can be understood only in the light of the past. It is equally axiomatic that before one can solve a problem he must understand it. For these reasons a brief historical sketch intended to serve as a background for the study of particular problems is used to introduce many of the topics treated in this volume. In teaching civics we should emphasize the functions and activities of institutions rather than their

anatomy or machinery. In this book, therefore, while institutional structure has been explained,—so far as limits of space allowed,—the utility and work of the agency in question have received chief emphasis. By this method interest is more easily maintained and a truer perspective of social values is gained.

This book is primarily a textbook in civics. It has been found useful also in a number of schools in different parts of the country as a basis of social-science material on which to build work in English. In these instances both oral and written exercises as well as reading-projects have been centered about the subjects which are treated in the various chapters. Suggestive topics for compositions—most of which have been tested by use in the classroom—are given with each chapter.

Extensive reading-lists, intended to enrich and vitalize the course, are furnished for the different topics. Readings are classified roughly under three divisions: (1) study references; (2) interesting works in the field of history, biography, travel, and the essay; and (3) imaginative or idealistic literature in the form of the novel, the short story, the poem, and the drama. While some of these readings, such as the Lessons in Community and National Life, might well be required of the entire class, it is recommended that, for the most part, each pupil be encouraged to read as many as possible of the books which appeal to him. In this way not only will the work of the class be enlivened by different and interesting contributions from the various pupils, but a love of reading will be aroused or stimulated.

In order that such reading may not become burdensome—an outcome which would defeat one of its chief values, the cultivation of a habit of reading worthy literature—it is essential that long book reports should not be required. A method of checking which avoids this danger and at the same time promotes interest and appreciation is to limit reports to cards (3 by 5 or 5 by 7),—one for each reference read,—on which pupils shall give (1) a brief summary of the content

of the book or article, (2) a sentence indicating its relation to the chapter under discussion, and (3) a statement of what they liked or disliked in the story or account. The following is an illustration of a concise and appropriate card report:

KELLY, MYRA

307

"Wards of Liberty," pp. 1-307

1. "Wards of Liberty" is a book composed of eight short stories centering around Miss Bailey's schoolroom in the Ghetto district of eastern New York City.
2. The author pictures America as the "Mother of Liberty" and the little aliens as her "wards"; in this way she illustrates our duty to immigrants.
3. The manner in which these stories are told, the queer English used by the little foreigners, and the human interest of the tales make the book a charming and interesting one.

If the report cards are filed by authors' names and are placed so that pupils may have access to them, they will prove invaluable in stimulating reading. They will also enable teachers to discover what boys and girls like to read. With few exceptions the works cited in the book-lists have been thus tested; an asterisk prefixed to a reference indicates that it is exceptionally interesting or illuminating. Since many of the books are published in several editions, it has seemed inadvisable to give the names of publishers. The books can be secured without difficulty from any good bookstore.

The variety in titles given in the book-lists is due to the wide variations in pupils' tastes; what is charming to one is occasionally insipid to another. The wise teacher will constantly add to the lists, and, if encouraged, pupils will also contribute valuable suggestions toward such enlargement and will gladly bring books for class use from their own homes.

In this way the facilities furnished by the school will be increased and opportunity will be given for practical social service.

In the teaching of the new civics the text should be looked upon only as a guide, for in no other subject is it so necessary to avoid bookishness. To assist the teacher in this matter questions, problems, subjects for debate, and things to do are included in each chapter. They should be regarded, of course, as merely suggestive; the wise teacher will use, omit, or adapt them to his needs, as seems best; certainly they should not be followed blindly or mechanically. The object of study is not the book; it is the community.

Wherever possible, illustrations should be drawn from the life and institutions of the vicinity; individual investigation and expression should be encouraged; pupils should be brought into direct contact with the activities of their own neighborhood; when it is practicable they should be stimulated to active coöperation in advancing its welfare. Above all, they should be inspired to think, feel, and act socially. When studied in this way civics will, indeed, contribute to the betterment of community life.

COMMUNITY LIFE AND CIVIC PROBLEMS

PART ONE. GROUP LIFE

AN INDIAN CHIEF

A red man of the old days could secure his own food, make his own clothing, shape his own weapons, erect his own wigwam, and construct his own canoe. He was in most ways very independent.

CHAPTER I

MYSELF AND OTHERS

All are needed by each one ;
Nothing is fair or good alone.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON

SECTION I. HOW I DEPEND ON OTHERS

Independence of the Indian. In most respects the lone Indian who made his silent way through the forests or over the prairies of America a few centuries ago was an independent individual. He stalked the wild deer or the buffalo which served him as food. His own hand shaped the marvelous bow and arrow he used so skillfully. What little clothing he wore consisted, for the most part, of the skins of animals he had killed in the chase. When on a hunting trip, if rough weather or sharp winds made open sky or overhanging rock an unsatisfactory roof, unassisted he raised a rude shelter of limbs and bark of trees. Food, weapons, clothing, shelter,—the necessities of life,—were all products of his own skill and energy.

Dependence of civilized man. Compared with the ability of the Indian to meet his own needs, a civilized man seems feeble indeed. Although he enjoys comforts and luxuries undreamed of by the red man, he is unable, as a rule, unless assisted by others, to secure or prepare his own food, make his own clothing, or build his own house.

Even in the commonplace things of life we are very dependent upon others. For example, while boys and girls are sometimes permitted to choose the color of their suits or dresses or shoes, their liberty in selection is very much limited. The boy who, by some strange fancy, might wish

to wear a vivid green or a bright scarlet suit would find it difficult to gratify his taste at most clothing-stores or tailoring establishments, while a girl who might wish a muff of humming-bird feathers would have far to go and a long time to search before she could find it.

Boys and girls, and older people too, depend upon others for a host of things every day of their lives. How many of

A HANDSOMELY FURNISHED LIVING-ROOM

Persian rug-weavers, Chinese vase-makers, Italian painters, French designers, English craftsmen, and American artisans and manufacturers all contribute to the furnishing of rooms like this.

you, for example, usually prepare your own breakfast? or lunch? or dinner? And, if you do, how many sowed and harvested the wheat and ground the flour and baked the bread you used for toast? or fed and milked the cow that supplied you with milk and butter? or provided the gas or coal or wood that cooked your meal? or made the range, skillet, pans, knives, forks, spoons, and chinaware you used in preparing the meal? or dug from the earth the iron and

silver and clay of which these things were made? or carried them from the mine, mill, and factory to your home ready for use?

Or how many of you made your own suits, dresses, hats, or shoes? or produced the cotton, flax, wool, or leather of which they are composed? How many of you built the houses in which you live? or made the furnishings they contain? or constructed the roads, streets, or sidewalks you use in going to school every day?

Does not your dependency on others appear also in most of your fun? If you like football, baseball, basketball, tennis, or hockey; if you are fond of the circus, the theater, or motion pictures; if you enjoy chess, checkers, dancing, or billiards,—whatever your favorite amusement may be, can you enjoy it without the help of others?

Even the Indian was not so independent as he seems. He owed his physical and mental traits to his ancestors. His skill as an arrow-maker and his cleverness in woodcraft were acquired largely from other braves. His success as a hunter and his ability as a warrior were due, in part, to the teaching of others. And as civilization has advanced and as life has become more and more complex, the dependence of the individual upon others has become greater and greater, until by comparison with civilized man the old-time Indian appears a very independent person.

Captain Boycott. About forty years ago there lived in Ireland a man named Captain Boycott, a land agent for a wealthy English nobleman. Because of the harsh methods used by Boycott in collecting rents from the tenants and his eviction of those unable or unwilling to pay, he became the object of intense hatred. His tenants left their little farms; servants and laborers refused to work for him; shopkeepers would neither buy from nor sell to him; blacksmiths would not shoe his horses; tailors would not make his clothes; the very passers-by would not speak or nod to him; people for miles around would have nothing to do with him or his

family. Shunned by everyone, his life became unbearable and he was forced at last to leave the country a ruined and embittered man. As an individual he found himself helpless when others refused to assist him in any way.

Summary. All through life we find this same dependence of the individual upon others. To others we owe our hereditary traits and characteristics; and from others, to a large extent, come our surroundings, food, clothing, shelter, amusements, protection, and education. If we are so indebted, so dependent, can we do anything to pay back the obligation? Or, like parasites, do we live wholly on others and give nothing in return?

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of the persons who were of any direct service to you today; of indirect service. Can you live without the help of others?

2. One of the rules of good health is, Breathe deeply and freely of pure air. Can you obey this rule without the aid of others?

3. Do wild animals depend on one another? Illustrate.

4. Give illustrations showing how we depend upon the past.

5. Do we depend on others more than the early colonists did? Explain.

6. After Robinson Crusoe had been wrecked on his lonely island was he dependent in any way upon other people?

7. Compare the dependence on others of a city resident and a farmer. For what does the city resident depend wholly on others? For what does the farmer depend on others?

8. When Chicago constructed a drainage canal from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi River she lowered the level of the lake ten inches (let us suppose). Did this canal make any difference to the inhabitants of Milwaukee? the inhabitants of St. Louis?

9. How did the interdependence of nations lead to the discovery of America?

10. Strictly speaking, is there such a thing as a self-made man? Explain.

SECTION II. HOW OTHERS DEPEND ON ME

Danger of hasty conclusions. You may have heard the old story of the six blind men who once went to visit the elephant. As it happened, one of them touched only its tusk, another its trunk, the third its side, the fourth its knee, the fifth its ear, and the sixth its tail. . Some time later they were talking about the strange beast. The first said that it was hard and smooth and sharp like a spear, the second that it was very like a large snake, the third that it was like a rough wall, the fourth that it was round like a tree, the fifth that it resembled a fan, and the last insisted that it was exactly like a rope. As often happens in such cases the argument ended in a quarrel.

The trouble, of course, was that each man was right and each was wrong. The elephant was all that each man claimed, but it was also a great deal more. In some ways many of us are very much like the blind men, for we, too, are quick to draw conclusions from insufficient information. From the first section in this chapter, for example, it is easy to conclude that an individual is a parasite living on others. But a little further thought will show that such a conclusion is as incorrect as that arrived at regarding the elephant by any of the blind men. For it is as true that others depend on the individual as that the individual depends on others, although fortunately the dependence is not so great in the former case.

Illustrations of dependence of others on the individual. For example, in 1905 a mistake by the quarter-back cost Michigan the Western football championship. The New York Giants once lost a world's baseball pennant because during a critical inning in the game a player failed to touch second base. Over two thousand years ago a traitor cost the Greeks the pass of Thermopylæ. A blunder by a helmsman is said to have caused the frightful Halifax disaster—a tragedy which cost the lives of hundreds of people, the destruction

of half the city, and the loss of millions of dollars' worth of homes, shipping, and military supplies.

All around us we see illustrations of this dependence of others on the individual. In the schoolroom the pupil who fails in a recitation, who speaks so he cannot be heard, who enters the room late, who makes unnecessary noise or in any

A FOOTBALL GAME

Team play is essential to success in football. All eleven members of a team must work together.

other way creates a disturbance, or who is irregular in attendance injures the entire class. And the pupil who fails in his work hurts not only himself and his family but the whole community.

In modern industry we have striking examples of the dependence of society on the individual and on groups of individuals. In the manufacture of shoes, for instance, there are over one hundred different processes. Let the man in charge of any of these processes fail to do his part and the whole work stops, at least temporarily. And not only do the men in the factory depend on each other but they depend

also on other men, and groups of men, outside of and far from the factory. They depend on the stock-raiser for leather, on the farmer for flax and food, on the mill-operator for thread, and on the miner, the ironworker, and the factory employee for coal, nails, and machinery. They depend on the transporter to bring together the various materials used

GENERAL CONTROL ROOM OF A GIANT BATTLESHIP

From this room every operation of the electrically driven battleship, the *Tennessee*, is controlled. The safety of all on board depends upon the accuracy and speed with which these men carry out orders.

in making shoes, on the capitalist for money to build and equip the factory, and on government officials for the protection necessary to carry on the industry successfully. Most of all, perhaps, they depend upon the consumer to buy the shoes when these are placed on the market. Let any of the men, or groups of men, fail to do their part and the whole enterprise is stopped or hampered.

Is it the same with society in general? Yes; for the community as a whole always suffers when any person fails to do his work. To be sure, the failure of an individual in such a case is fortunately not so harmful to society as the failure of

a vital organ would be to the body, for "society is not a big animal. There is no social stomach or brain or heart or eye or spinal cord."¹ One member of an athletic team may play poorly and the team yet win. A workman may blunder sadly without ruining the factory. A pupil may not prepare his lesson, and the recitation may still go on without his help. And yet, even though society is not absolutely dependent upon the individual (by no means so dependent as is the individual on society), the fact remains that the failure of any person to do his part is always harmful and sometimes fatal to the group.

Summary. In fact, society is always injured when any of its members buries his talent, for the social talent is but the sum of the individual talents. Whenever "the man who can till a field, or work a forge, or build a machine, or organize a crew of laborers, or increase knowledge, or interpret law, or lead an army, or do anything which can be turned to the service of the many," fails to use his ability, society as a whole suffers. In short, the most important as well as the most common fact in life is the dependence of human beings in countless ways upon one another.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name the persons who depend on you. For what does each of them depend?
2. "When two people share a joy, it is doubled; when they share a sorrow, it is halved." Is this true? Explain.
3. Name industries that depend upon one another; cities; countries. Give in each case illustrations of the things for which they are mutually dependent.
4. What workers had a part in the making of this book? of your lead pencil? of your desk? of your school building?
5. How do the people of the future depend upon us?
6. Name several noble human qualities which result from our response to the needs of others.

¹A. W. Small, *Principles of Sociology*, p. 527.

SECTION III. WHAT COMMUNITY LIFE MEANS

Definitions. In the preceding sections the words "group," "community," and "society" have been used a number of times. What do these words mean? What is community life?

Each of these words has a variety of meanings. In this book, however, they are used to mean people mutually

THRESHING OATS

Neighboring farmers often help one another at threshing time. This is a good example of coöperation in the country.

associated, with certain common interests and common purposes and depending to a greater or less degree upon one another. So far as these terms differ in meaning, the difference is chiefly one of numbers. As so regarded, a group is a small number of persons mutually associated, such as the members of a family, a club, or a class. A community is a larger number of persons mutually associated in a certain locality, such as a country neighborhood, a village, a city. "Society," in its largest application, includes all persons in any way connected with one another; in this sense "society" may be said to embrace all mankind, since all men nowadays

are more or less associated with one another. The word "group" is also used in this sense by some sociologists.

To a certain extent these terms are used interchangeably. For example, community life may be defined narrowly as the life of any group of people who live in a small area, such as a county, city, or township. A study of such a community is concerned chiefly with the activities and interests of the inhabitants so far as they affect one another; it includes therefore matters like local education, health, recreation, industry, and government. Considered more broadly, however, the world itself may be regarded as a community and the activities and interests of its inhabitants as an illustration of community life. Thus the United States depends on oriental lands for spices and tea and fine fabrics, on the countries of South America for coffee and sugar and leather, on European peoples for linen and chemicals and chinaware; and they, in turn, depend on the United States for cotton and foodstuffs and all sorts of manufactured articles. In our study we shall consider community life from both aspects.

Necessity of teamwork in community life. Community life is possible only when people coöperate or work together. Every person needs food, clothing, and shelter. But as industry is carried on today, some men give all their time to raising food; others give their attention to making clothing; and still others build houses, drive locomotives, paint pictures, or write stories. The man who spends his time in raising food must therefore depend on others for clothing, shelter, farm implements, newspapers, and books. Others in turn must depend on him for food. Likewise, the man who devotes his efforts to making clothing must depend on others for food, shoes, hats, and phonographs; others necessarily will depend on him for wearing-apparel.

In every community, in fact, we generally find that the farmer depends on the hardware man, the factory worker, and the miner for farm implements; on the grocer, the wholesaler, and the planter for tea, coffee, and sugar; on

the writer and publisher and speaker for information ; on the railroader and sailor for transportation ; on the physician for healing ; and on the minister for inspiration. Each of these, in turn, depends on the farmer for food and upon others for other services and commodities. In a similar way, as we have seen, each worker in a factory depends on his fellow employees for the products of their labor and they, likewise, depend upon him. Only by coöperation can the work go on and the needs of society be satisfied.

Not a week passes without emphatic illustrations of the vital importance of teamwork in modern industry. If the cutters strike, the shoe factory must close ; if the street-car men strike, the traffic of the city is tied up ; if the railroaders quit work, the nation is in dire straits ; if the coal miners lay down their picks, all industries stop and every home suffers. On the other hand, each of these powerful groups is to some degree as dependent upon other groups as they are upon it. If the tanners quit, the cutters are helpless ; if the telegraphers leave their keys, the railroaders become idle ; if the farmers quit tilling the soil, the miners will soon be forced out of the mines. Teamwork, in short, is the sole road to successful industry.

During the World War the same need appeared. Said the director of motor-truck construction, "Without trucks

A FRUIT AND VEGETABLE STAND

People in the city must depend for food upon people in the country. In return for beans, tomatoes, and strawberries what do city workers send the farmers ?

the war can't be won." Said the military leaders, "Without an army the enemy can't be defeated." From the navy came the cry, "Without our protection the army and the trucks can't reach France." "We are the eyes of the armed forces of the nation; nothing can be accomplished without our help," said the aviators. "Food will win the war," insisted Mr. Hoover. "Ships! ships! more ships! Build a bridge

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A GREAT RAILROAD YARD

In the picture can be seen coal, iron pipes, car wheels, and oil on their way from different regions to serve the varying wants of men.

of ships to Pershing, or democracy is lost!" shouted Frederick Palmer. "Subscribe to the Liberty Loan, and win the war," urged Secretary McAdoo. And champions of other agencies were equally vigorous in emphasizing their own importance. The truth, of course, is that, just as in the case of the blind men and the elephant, each was partly right. But the whole truth is that all these factors, as well as many others, were necessary for success. Coöperation by all industries, joint action by all the armies, united support from all the Allies, alone brought victory. Without teamwork democracy itself would have perished.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name other groups besides those named in this section. Of what groups are you a member? What common ideals and purposes unite these groups? For what things do you depend on each of them?
2. Name some ways in which your life is richer than that of the Indians who lived here three hundred years ago. To what extent are these differences due to social coöperation?
3. Show how a factory is the result of human interdependence.
4. What is meant by teamwork? Give illustrations of teamwork in your home; in this school. Can you name any enterprise attempted in your community which failed because of poor teamwork? How can teamwork in your community be improved?
5. Why is a regiment of twenty-two hundred soldiers able to rout a mob, equally well armed, of ten times its number?

SECTION IV. HOW MY INTERESTS CONFLICT WITH THOSE OF OTHERS

Difficulty in securing teamwork. Probably the hardest task of an athletic coach, an orchestral leader, or a military commander is to get the members of his team, orchestra, or army to act together. It may seem strange that there should be any difficulty in securing united action in a football team, since every member knows that victory depends largely on teamwork and not on individual effort; the members of an orchestra, too, are all aware that failure to play together means discord instead of harmony. But in both instances each person has a will of his own, and whenever a number of people join in a single undertaking their wills frequently clash and friction results.

This conflict of wills which appears even in an athletic team or a musical organization, where all the players at least want to work together, is naturally much more apparent in a town or city where such a desire is weak. Here, notwithstanding the advantages of united action, conflicts between

the individual and the group are frequent. The truth is that coöperation often means giving up our own interests, and most of us do not like to give up. Consequently we find ourselves over and over again in conflict with others.

Illustrations of conflicting interests. Illustrations of such conflicts are common. In the study period or during a recitation a boy has something he wishes to say to his neighbor.

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A BAD WRECK

Wrecks like this are usually caused by the carelessness of one person—a train dispatcher, an engineer, or a conductor.

Such a communication will disturb others; coöperation therefore requires self-denial. Or one pupil, let us suppose, has been exposed during vacation to a contagious disease such as scarlet fever; to report the exposure means exclusion from school for a time and the loss of much school work; self-interest counsels silence—coöperation demands self-sacrifice. To the soldier teamwork means the surrender of his own will to that of his commander even to the loss of life itself.

In fact, whenever people rub elbows or cross tracks with one another, there is usually more or less friction. All

through life a person may find that what he wants brings him into conflict with others. When a small child his appetite for candy conflicts with the ideas of health held by his parents. When a boy in school his effort to boss all the sports causes trouble with his playmates. In manhood his attempt to have his own way brings conflicts with his family and associates. If in the effort to catch a train he drives his automobile at high speed through the city streets he has trouble with the police. If he tries to avoid heavy financial loss by offering for sale spoiled food, the disagreeable taste of which he has concealed by a liberal mixture of chemicals, he is likely to be fined and imprisoned. Notwithstanding his opposition to free education the government takes his property in the form of taxes for the support of the public schools. Prosperous in business and happy at home, society compels him to leave wealth, family, and happiness to fight for a cause to which, perhaps, he is indifferent or even hostile.

A selfish man like this might well ask when he finds his interests constantly interfered with: "Who should decide these matters—myself or others? If I suffer by yielding to others, why should I yield? Is not self-preservation nature's first law? By what right or principle should others control me?"

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Bring to class clippings or pictures from the newspapers which illustrate conflicting interests between individuals or groups of individuals. Be able to point out in each case what was the chief cause of the conflict.

2. Give illustrations of conflicting interests in the groups to which you belong; in the neighborhood in which you live.

3. Is selfishness the chief cause of conflicting interest? Explain and illustrate.

4. Give an example, not in this section, which shows that coöperation often requires self-denial. Mention such an instance in your own experience. Can you name any stories which illustrate this idea?

SECTION V. HOW THE COMMUNITY CONTROLS

Why the group should control. If the selfish fellow mentioned in the last section insists on knowing why he should give in when his interests are contrary to the interests of the group—and he has a right to ask the question—the answer is that by no other method can he have his own way in so many respects. By giving in he gains; by surrender he wins.

It is impossible, of course, for everyone to have his own way in all matters. If the group did not have the right to decide human differences, constant struggle would go on between individuals until one person would get power over all the rest. That is, every man's hand would be constantly raised against every other man's. Only the strong could satisfy their desires, and they but for a short time—until a stronger should arise. Under such circumstances a compromise which will satisfy as many interests as possible of as many individuals as possible is the only reasonable solution of the problem. Control by the group and for the group is such a compromise. The story of how it has been and is being brought about among men is the story of human progress.

Control of human activities by society satisfies the wishes of more individuals than does any other plan. A system of control by which one person could set aside the wishes of many would be odious. In short, social control is justifiable because it provides for "the greatest good to the greatest number." This is the answer to the man who insists on knowing why he should not have his own way regardless of how it affects others. In a word, social control is democracy, or rule by the people; individual control is autocracy, or rule by one.

Meaning of social control. As the word is used here, "control" does not mean merely how a group compels its members to do what they do not want to do. It may mean this,

to be sure, but usually it denotes much more than this. It means how society causes its members to get along with one another,—to dress and eat and talk and play and work as the group thinks right.

It is not always possible to tell just what a community thinks about everything, for the opinions of its members differ and their ideas change constantly; but on most matters there is usually little trouble in knowing in a general way what they approve and what they disapprove. Concerning such details as the color of hat a man should wear or the distance from the ground the bottom of his trousers should be, there may be no opinion or there may be the widest difference of opinion; but differ as they may on these points, the members of American communities will almost all agree that a man should not wear a woman's dress, at least not on the public street. And with rare exceptions he will accept the view of the community without objection because it will be his own view.

Methods of social control. Now how does society get its members to accept its views? How does it control them? What methods does it use? If you will close the book for a few minutes and ask yourself just why you do as you do most of the time, you will discover some of the chief methods of control it employs.

For example, why do you go to school and to church? Why are you courteous to your parents, friends, and school-mates? Why do you eat with knife, fork, and spoon instead of with chopsticks or fingers? Why do you think as you do about athletics, amusements, school, or work? Why does your father pay taxes? Your answers to these questions should show that the chief methods of social control are law, custom, public opinion, and institutions.

1. *Law.* At first thought it may seem that the laws and ordinances which are passed by our city councils, state legislatures, and national Congress, and which are enforced by policemen, marshals, sheriffs, constables, and courts, form

the strongest method of social control. Laws seem to be necessary to regulate the speed of automobiles, the charges which may be collected for passengers and freight, and the

years during which children must attend school. But is it the law which controls most of us or even criminals in most of their daily activities? In your own case, for instance, do you eat, dress, talk, or believe as you do because you are afraid of being arrested? In exceptional periods, such as war times, the government does try to regulate even such matters as these, but it does not do so ordinarily.

Or are you courteous, kind, helpful, cheerful, because some ordinance of the city will punish you if you act otherwise? Are you in school because the law requires you to go? Were there no laws punishing theft, burglary, or murder would the majority of the people become pickpockets, thieves, burglars, and thugs?

A KOREAN IN MOURNING

In Korea it is believed that a member of the family dies only when someone in the family sins. Accordingly mourners, like this Korean peddler, try to save themselves from the disgrace of being seen after a death in the home by hiding their faces under large drooping hats.

In fact, are not the very convicts in our penitentiaries examples of the failure of society to control such individuals by law or by any other method? Indeed, the deeper one investigates the matter, the more convinced he usually becomes that instead of the law being the best way to control

people it is one of the poorest ways. Few people do or refrain from doing certain deeds on account of the law.

2. *Custom.* Custom is a strong method of social control. In America and in western Europe, for example, the women wear blouses and skirts; in certain parts of Asia they dress in pantaloons. A difference in social custom explains this difference in apparel. Custom also explains in large part national differences in food, language, and manners. With us, shaking the head from side to side means "no"; in Syria this means "repeat" and raising the chin means "no." In the British Parliament the members usually sit with their hats on; in the Congress of the United States they sit with their hats off. We celebrate the Fourth of July because it is the custom; we eat turkey and cranberries on Thanksgiving Day—if we can afford them—because it is the custom; we send valentines on the fourteenth of February because it is the custom. In short, custom regulates much of our lives.

3. *Public opinion.* Public opinion, or what people think about any matter, is also one of the strongest methods of social control. Someone has said that, as a rule, most of us care very little what some other person thinks of us if he

A PROSPECTIVE KOREAN BRIDEGROOM

This cheerful Korean lad has just been betrothed by his parents. Instead of the young lady wearing a diamond ring to symbolize this engagement he wears this peculiar hat.

will only keep his opinion to himself. But when he tells somebody else and his opinion is then passed from mouth to mouth we feel very different about it. That is, as soon as an opinion ceases to be the thought of one person and tends to become the belief of many, we care very much indeed what that opinion is. It was a knowledge of the power of public opinion which led city officials to post this sign in the street cars of Belfast, Ireland: "Spitting is a vile and filthy habit,

A MOHAMMEDAN SCHOOL

Only boys may attend a Mohammedan school. Strangely enough both teacher and pupils wear fezzes, or caps, in the schoolroom but remove their shoes or slippers.

and those who practice it subject themselves to the disgust and loathing of their fellow passengers."¹ Public opinion determines political elections; it causes the passage and enforcement of laws; it forces nations to go to war and it compels them to make peace. It is an invisible force which influences everyone; it reaches from the palace to the hovel; it controls the humblest workman and the richest capitalist, the lowest peasant and the mightiest autocrat.

4. *Institutions.* Finally, among the greatest methods of society for controlling its members are institutions. The word "institution" is rather difficult to define. It is used in a variety of ways. For our purpose it will be enough to say

¹W. H. Allen, *Civics and Health*, p. 10.

that it is a way society has worked out for doing certain things. In this sense we may call the family, school, church, government, bank, newspaper, and factory institutions. But institutions are not material things. Unlike houses and barns, they generally accompany a people who move from place to place. They are in a certain sense social habits.

KANDIAN CHIEFS

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These skirted and furbelowed gentlemen are attending a celebration in the town of Kandy, Ceylon. Do you think their costumes and beards are the result of public opinion, custom, law, or institutions?

Most people send their children to school not because the law requires it, nor because it is the custom, nor even because people generally believe that an education is a good thing—although all three exert a strong influence—but because the school is at hand. To a large extent the same thing is true of churchgoing. If the school and the church did not exist education and religion would quickly decline. Descriptions of life in early American frontier settlements where there were no schools or churches are convincing on

this point. To a large degree our thoughts, words, and manners are all formed by social institutions.

It should be remembered, however, that the connection between the four methods of social control which have been discussed in this section is very close. Institutions play a great part in forming public opinion, custom, and law, but these, in turn, are influential in creating institutions. Public opinion leads to the passage of laws; and laws, likewise, affect public opinion. We do as we do from day to day because of the influence of all four, and the part which any one of them plays varies with the person and with the circumstance.

Summary. In the modern world the individual always depends on others. From them he secures much of his food, clothing, shelter, and protection. Society, likewise, depends on the individual. The activities, relations, and conflicts which grow out of human interdependence form the subject of community life and give rise to its problems. The control of these activities and the solution of these problems, humanly speaking, rest with society. By such control alone can the wishes of the majority be carried out. Law, custom, public opinion, and institutions are the chief methods used by society to control its members. Recognizing his dependence on others, the ideal citizen is he who, refusing to consider merely his own interests, works heartily with others to promote, so far as he can, all causes tending to better the entire community. As Samuel Gompers, for many years president of the American Federation of Labor, put it, the good citizen is "A man who does not live for himself alone; one who is concerned in the welfare of his fellows; who will, if necessary, make sacrifices to rectify wrongs, to eliminate evils, and make every effort for the common uplift, who will endeavor by every means within his power to see to it that these principles shall find expression in the laws and in the administration of the affairs of the government of his city, his state, and his country."

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Explain the meaning of "social control" (see page 18). Which method of social control influences you most? Are you sure?

2. Should you obey a city ordinance which you do not like and of which you disapprove? Why? Should you obey it even if you would not be punished if you broke it?

3. While on his island Robinson Crusoe became in turn house-builder, farmer, stock-raiser, doctor, basket-maker, hatter, miller, cook, boat-builder, tailor, and teacher. Why did he not become a merchant, banker, policeman?

4. Social control is usually justified on the principle of "the greatest good to the greatest number." The German submarine warfare cost the lives of two hundred and forty-four Americans. Upon the above principle can you justify the United States for declaring war on Germany when the war cost the lives of 112,422 American soldiers?

5. Give examples of social control in the early American colonies. Are individuals controlled by other people in more respects now than in colonial days? Are you sure? Which do you think the more rigorous—the prohibition laws of today or the Sabbath-observance laws of colonial days? Explain.

6. Give examples of acts perfectly harmless in themselves which in certain circumstances injure others. How can one tell whether a deed is good or bad?

7. Tom Smith, who lives with his family on Tenth Street, earns \$200 a month; he and his family spend every cent of it. Is this of any concern to you?

8. Susan Thomas, while at work yesterday in a glove factory on the West Side, had her right hand cut off. Does this affect us in any way?

9. Last year Brown, a pupil at the Smithfield School, was tardy five times and absent seven times. Consequently he failed. Of what importance was this to his parents? classmates? other citizens? Answer the same questions on the supposition that he was promoted.

10. What makes a lot in the business part of a city more valuable as a rule than a lot of equal size in the outlying portions?

11. Are there any coöperative associations in your neighborhood? If so, describe their work.

12. What do you have a right to expect from the community? What does the community have a right to expect from you?

QUESTION FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that in our community public opinion is a stronger method of social control than custom.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

How I depend on Others for Amusement

The Story of a Gold Filling

How I depend on Others for a Safe Walk or Ride

Cotton from the Seed to the Consumer

How my Actions are influenced by the Thoughts of Others

A Loaf of Bread

The Tale of a Pin

How I depend on Others for a Drink of Water

My Idea of a Good Citizen

A Pair of Gloves

READINGS FOR PUPILS

(Asterisks indicate material especially interesting or illuminating)

1. Study References

Lessons in Community and National Life :¹

*A-2: LYON, L. S. "The Western Pioneer."

A-3: LYON, L. S. "The Coöperation of Specialists in Modern Society."

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*B-1: NAGELY, L. "The Effect of War on Commerce in Nitrate."

B-4: McLAUGHLIN, K. "Feeding a City."

*C-17: AYRES, E. "Custom as a Basis for Law."

ROWE, HENRY K. *Society: Its Origin and Development*, pp. 1-23.

¹Lessons in Community and National Life, to which frequent reference will be made, are issued in three pamphlets (Series A, B, and C) by the United States Bureau of Education. Series B and C can be purchased at 15 cents each, Series A at 25 cents, from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. These pamphlets are invaluable.

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READINGS FOR TEACHERS

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CHAPTER II

THE FAMILY

The strength of a nation, especially of a republican nation, is in the intelligent and well-ordered homes of the people.—MRS. SIGOURNEY

SECTION I. WHY WE ARE ALL DIFFERENT

Variety in nature. Nature does not like sameness. Throughout her entire kingdom there is the utmost variety. No two snowflakes are alike; the leaves in the forest are all different; the clouds in the sky and the waves of the sea have different forms; even grains of sand when seen under the microscope present variations.

It is in the realm of animal life, however, that nature's most marked dissimilarities appear. The creatures which live in the air or on the land or whose home is in the sea are all different. They vary in size, color, form, and covering. Some are covered with feathers, others with fur, some with scales. Even when we examine those which belong to the same family we find striking contrasts: no one has any difficulty in distinguishing lions, leopards, tigers, panthers, lynxes, and wildcats from one another. Indeed, if a careful examination were made of all the members of any one kind of house cat—for there are such great differences among house cats that they have been divided into many distinct varieties—it would be found that no two are exactly alike.

Causes of variations. Now what causes these variations? In part they are due to differences in surroundings. Animals living in a cold climate need to be protected by warm coats of fur; those which live underground need paws and teeth suitable for burrowing; those which dwell in the water, like the beaver and the duck, need webbed feet for swimming.

Thus differences in temperature, rainfall, homes, and modes of living all play a part in causing variations among animals.

These variations are due chiefly, however, to the method of reproduction nature uses in all but the simplest forms of life. Among the higher plants and animals life is preserved from generation to generation by having two parents participate in the creation of a new individual. Since in this method of reproduction two lines of ancestry meet, the new individual, although he may resemble one or both parents, is inevitably different from either of them. In this way variation takes place. Transmission of life by two parents is, in fact, nature's chief method of preventing sameness.

Biological basis of the family. The mental and physical

ANCESTORS

This youngster has the unusual opportunity of visiting with his four great-grandmothers and two of his great-grandfathers. Notice how different they are. From each of them he has inherited some of his characteristics.

traits which are not quite alike in any two of us and which play such a vital part in making us interesting to one another depend, then, largely on the fact that everyone has two parents. The infinite possibility of such variation appears from the fact that within only thirteen generations every human being has a total of 8192 ancestors, each of whom has made some contribution to his inherited traits. Existence and hereditary characteristics come, then, from one's parents. Consequently the family is important, in the first place, because it is the institution through which life and, to a large extent, variety are made possible.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Who was Charles Darwin? How did he explain the differences which exist among animals?
2. Can you name physical or mental traits which you have inherited from either of your parents?
3. Read Oliver Wendell Holmes's poem "Dorothy Q." How does it relate to this section?

SECTION II. FAMILY LIFE AMONG ANIMALS AND MEN

Number of young. The number of young produced by different animals varies widely. Certain snakes lay as many as 100 eggs in a season. A lobster lays 10,000 eggs at a time. A fully grown female white ant deposits 80,000 eggs a day steadily for several months. During her life of four or five years a queen bee lays about 5,000,000 eggs. On dissection a large codfish was found to contain about 9,000,000 eggs. A fish like the turbot produces as many as 15,000,000 eggs in a season and is capable of living and producing for many years. Pigeons, on the other hand, produce about 15 young annually; a robin lays 5 or 6 eggs in a year; and a cow may give birth to only one calf during a twelvemonth.¹

Neglect of young by lower animals. These great differences in multiplication among animals are accompanied by other important contrasts between the lower and the higher forms of life in their provision for their young. Insects often deposit their eggs carelessly in places unfavorable for hatching; potato bugs, for example, frequently lay eggs on weeds even when potato vines are near at hand. In most of the lower forms of life, in fact, what care is given is usually limited to laying the eggs in surroundings suited for hatching and in places where a supply of food will be available for the young. Parental care then ceases. The eggs are left to

¹D. S. Jordan and V. L. Kellogg, *Animal Life*, p. 61.

fate, and the parents as a rule remain ignorant of the outcome. The toad, for instance, though a land animal, has young which live in the water; it therefore usually lays its eggs in some pond, lake, or slow-moving stream; upon hatching, the young tadpoles are left to shift for themselves. Sponges, worms, and starfishes also give no care to their young. Many snakes deposit their eggs in sand, under logs, or in heaps of earth and leaves, and then show no further interest in them.

As a result of this lack of care by the parents, few of the young of such species live to grow up. Thousands of the eggs of the codfish are destroyed before they are hatched, and thousands of young codfish are devoured by other fish long before they are fully grown. It is said that on the average only one out of 500,000 codfish reaches maturity. This amazing death rate is due largely to the lack of parental care.

Care of young by higher animals. On the other hand, the eggs of birds as a rule are carefully guarded and hatched by the parents. Nests varying in excellence, from the loosely constructed abode of the mourning dove to the compact home of the humming-bird or oriole, are built to contain the eggs and house the young. During the period when the fledglings are helpless the parent birds feed and protect them. Everyone is familiar with the devotion with which

A SHELTERED NEST

The phoebe usually builds its nest under a protecting rock or rafter. It is very fond of its young and boldly attacks any creature which threatens them.

the robin or quail risks its own life to protect its offspring from dangerous enemies. Not until the young birds are able to provide themselves food and to escape from their foes do the parents cease their tireless devotion.

As a result of this painstaking care given to their offspring by birds, squirrels, and other members of the higher forms

of the animal kingdom, the death rate among their young is so low that, in spite of the much larger multiplication of creatures like the lobster and the codfish, there remain from season to season as many members of these higher species as there are of the lower forms of life. In fact, care of the young by

RUFFED GROUSE

By careful scrutiny the young grouse can be seen near the mother bird, although their dark-brown color causes them to blend readily into the background of leaves and bark.

the parent not only prevents the enormous waste of life which takes place among the lower creatures but, as we shall see later, it leads, especially among human beings, to the most beautiful companionships in life. To give such care to the young is the second fundamental service of the family.

Short period of dependence of young among animals. Important as parental care is among the lower animals, it is among human beings that we discover its greatest need and in the human family that we find its most perfect development. The need of parental care is greater in the human species than among the lower animals because the period of helplessness of the young is so much longer. As soon as

a butterfly comes from its chrysalis it is completely developed: it can provide itself food and shelter; it knows where to deposit its eggs; it knows how to make provision for its young. Most reptiles, from the very first, are so like their parents in all but size that it is difficult to speak of them as having any period like youth. Frogs, toads, and similar animals become fully grown in from three to nine months; very few birds need more than three or four years; while lions and tigers require only from three to five years. The fur seal needs about four years to grow up; dogs from one to two years; badgers about six months.

Not only is the period of growth relatively short in these animals but, in general, their young are able to care for themselves almost from the very beginning of life. A newborn giraffe can stand alone almost immediately and is able to run about easily in a day or two; a baby hippopotamus can swim from the first; a young elephant follows its mother about almost from birth.¹

Long period of dependence of the child. Compared with the lower animals, a newborn child is utterly helpless and dependent. At birth his mind has no intelligence and his body lacks strength; both are little more than possibilities.

RED FOX AND FAMILY

Red foxes dwell in burrows. They often get food for their young by raiding neighboring poultry yards.

¹P. C. Mitchell, *Childhood of Animals*, pp. 43-44.

As a specialist in the care of children has put it, "A baby is the hardest animal in the world to raise." For months he must depend on his mother for everything. Usually a year or more goes by before he is able to walk or talk. A longer time passes before he can dress himself. As a child he frequently does not recognize danger, and if he does he is helpless in its presence. Years usually must go by before he can provide himself food, shelter, clothing, and protection.

Among the inhabitants of the temperate regions the period of youth continues until the child reaches the age of eighteen or twenty years. During this time he is wholly or partially dependent on his parents or other persons for the satisfaction of most of his wants. It is this long period of dependence of the young which gives the human family its chief importance and its unequaled opportunity.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give examples, other than those in the section, which show how animals neglect their young; how they care for them.

2. Describe in some detail the family life of a bird or animal in which you are interested. Compare it with the family life of human beings.

3. What are the chief differences in the family life of the lower and that of the higher animals?

4. Explain this statement: "Of all industries, he is artless; of all institutions, he is lawless; of all philosophies, he is opinionless; of all reasoning, he is thoughtless. . . . In all these respects, the newborn babe is hardly the peer of the newborn beast."—

J. W. POWELL

SECTION III. HOW THE HUMAN FAMILY EDUCATES

The education of animals. The educational work of the family appears even among the lower animals. Such birds as robins and orioles teach their fledglings to fly and to hunt for food. Polar bears teach their cubs to swim and to fish.

Young lions are taught by their mother to stalk their prey ; even before they leave their lair she lets them play with her tail and trains them to seize and worry it so as to give them experience which will be useful in catching their prey ; sometimes both parents teach the cubs to hunt. Everyone has seen the common house cat bring mice for her kittens to worry and kill.¹ It is in the human species, however, owing to the long period during which children are dependent on their parents, that the educational services of the family have their greatest importance.

1. *Language*. In the first place, it is in the family that practically everyone learns to talk. Since most of us cannot remember a time when we could not talk, we are likely to think of language as of no great importance. It is only when we try to master a foreign tongue or read the fascinating story of how Helen Keller, who was both blind and deaf, conquered speech that its true significance begins to dawn on our minds.

As a matter of fact, of course, the importance of language or of some other method of exchanging ideas is beyond measure. In a world whose inhabitants had no power to communicate with one another it would be impossible for people to work, play, or act together in any way. If human life could go on under such circumstances it would be without progress, for each generation would have no way of finding out what the previous generation had learned and would be compelled to start where its ancestors had begun. Without the power to exchange ideas each person would live, if live he could, by himself and for himself. Community life under such circumstances is unthinkable, since without communication the very heart of the community—coöperation—would be impossible.

Now, with rare exceptions, it is in the family that human speech is learned. A newborn baby, of course, does not know how to ask for what it wants, nor can it understand

¹P. C. Mitchell, *Childhood of Animals*, p. 246.

a word its mother says. Only when it discovers after repeated experiences that crying brings what it wishes, such as something to eat or a lift from the crib, does it cry with any object in view. Up to that discovery its crying had no more purpose than did the jerking of its hands or the kicking of its legs. Slowly and gradually this early experience—that sounds made with the voice bring results that are pleasant—is followed by the learning of words and sentences, usually from the lips of mother and father, older brothers and sisters.¹ In this way the first great educational work of the family—the mastery of language—is accomplished.

2. *Opinions and tastes.* Most of our opinions and tastes are also formed in the family. It is rare, indeed, to find in a home where the father or mother has an abiding interest in books and magazines a boy or girl who does not like to read. The same thing is true of music and art, of amusements and athletics. What father and mother like, with some allowance for differences in age, the children generally enjoy. During a political campaign a boy usually cheers and argues for the candidates for whom his father expects to vote; during the war there were few girls who did not take to knitting or bandage-making if their mothers were enthusiastic about Red Cross work.

While there are exceptions, of course, the attitude of parents toward questions and problems of every kind—politics, religion, prohibition, fashion, sports—determines to a large extent the attitude of their children. With a strong admiration and affection for father and mother, and surrounded by their influence during the years when impressions are most easily made, boys and girls naturally accept to a large degree the ideas and tastes reflected in their homes.

3. *Habits of work.* Habits of industry or laziness are also formed in the family. The child who is taught that there is a certain part of the work about the house which he must do forms habits of industry rarely forgotten; he who is never

¹C. H. Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*, pp. 139–140.

required to do any task at home or who is required to work only by fits or starts is likely to form habits of idleness which will be difficult to conquer in later life.

4. *Ideas of government.* Earliest notions of government are likewise gained in the family. A boy who has learned to obey his father and his mother seldom gets into trouble at school or in the community for disobedience to rules or laws. He has no trouble in keeping out of jail.

5. *Ideas of right and wrong.* Our ideas of right and wrong are also formed largely in the family circle. Not only are ideals of unselfishness, honesty, courage, purity, and loyalty taught in the home by command and story, but in a much deeper way, for good or for ill, they or their opposites are there ingrained by the impression left on the child by the daily lives of mother, father, and older brothers and sisters. Where there are a number of children in the home these virtues frequently become habits as a result of the self-sacrifice and thoughtfulness for the rights and welfare of one another which are necessary in such a group.

6. *Religion.* Our earliest and usually our deepest impressions of religion are also gained, as a rule, in the family. Rarely, indeed, is it that a truly religious person comes from an irreligious home. And while son or daughter in later years may wander far from the religious instruction received in days of childhood, its influence abides and over and over again serves to bring the wanderer back to his early faith.

The most appealing qualities of God himself are expressed in terms of the family, and the most sacred ceremonies of the Christian and Jewish religions have as their symbol a family meal. A church is frequently referred to as a brotherhood or as a "household of faith." Even the world to come is often spoken of as a home. On the stone that marks the grave of Robert Louis Stevenson, for example, are carved the words:

Home is the sailor, home from sea,
And the hunter home from the hill.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How may a child with no brothers or sisters be hampered in life?
2. What habits have you learned at home? What tastes?
3. Compare your opinions and tastes with those of your father and mother. In what respects are they alike? In what respects are they different? How do you account for the differences? What do you contribute to determine the opinions and tastes in your home?
4. Should children give all the money they earn to their parents?
5. Is the ordinary home of today better than the ordinary home of a century or more ago? Explain. (See references in the reading-list.)

SECTION IV. HOME

The meaning of home. The finest things in life can seldom be measured by a tape line or weighed by a pair of scales. No scientist can determine how much is added to human happiness by the fragrance of a rose, the beauty of the sunset, or the glory of the stars. In like manner, poets and painters have exhausted their talents in trying to portray the meaning of home.

The elements that enter into its make-up are of such stuff as dreams are made of, for home is a matter of feeling, not reasoning. It is the place where one belongs, where he fits in, where he has a right to be because in a peculiar sense it is his own. All true patriots feel this way about their country, especially in times of national danger or after sojourning in an alien land. As Walter Scott asks, in his "Lay of the Last Minstrel":

Breathes there the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
 This is my own, my native land!
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned
As home his footsteps he hath turned
 From wandering on a foreign strand?

Or, as our own poet Henry van Dyke put it:

Oh, London is a man's town, there's power in the air;
And Paris is a woman's town, with flowers in her hair;
And it's sweet to dream in Venice, and it's great to study Rome;
But when it comes to living there is no place like home.

So it's home again, and home again, America for me!
My heart is turning home again, and there I long to be,
In the land of youth and freedom beyond the ocean bars,
Where the air is full of sunlight and the flag is full of stars.¹

The family circle. Home, then, may mean the country of one's birth, but it is in connection with the family that the word has its most familiar and tender associations. Its very source, in fact, is the family circle. About this circle the earliest memories cling, the most intimate companionships are formed, and the greatest kindness and affection are found.

Unhappily there are families in which the seamy side of human nature is outermost; in which selfishness and quarreling, instead of generosity and affection, so mark the attitude of the family group that sometimes its members drift away in search of pleasanter surroundings. But even in such instances, with the passing of the years the disagreeable memories fade away, leaving only the fond recollections of home. Instances are common in which brothers and sisters who, as children, had constantly quarreled with one another or who had been on bad terms with their parents have in later life visited the old home over and over again, even though each visit was attended by fresh quarrels and difficulties. The love of home thus proved too deep to be destroyed even by an atmosphere of constant discord.

The ideal home. If the affection for home is so sure under such unfavorable circumstances, its power cannot be exaggerated when the family circle is made the center of love and happiness. In the ideal home kindly affections exist between all the members of the family. The parents take

¹From the Poems of Henry van Dyke, published and copyrighted by Charles Scribner's Sons.

part in the good times of the children, and the children in turn are interested in the activities of the parents. The brothers and sisters, inspired by the comradeship of the father and the mother, see in one another the best of play-mates and friends. Thus, bound together by affection and companionship, the members of the family find the home the cheeriest, happiest, best place in the whole wide world.

A POPULAR TYPE OF DWELLING

In small cities and suburban communities it is possible to have large yards and an abundance of light and fresh air.

The Roosevelt home seems to have been just such a circle. When he was president Mr. Roosevelt always found time, even in the midst of the most vexing problems of state, for a romp with the younger children and a game or a chat with the older ones. When away from home he constantly inquired about their studies, books, pets, friends, and sports in the charming letters he wrote his children. His interest in them was repaid not only by their affection and admiration but by their eagerness to know about his various undertakings. The mother, too, was a boon companion, while among

the children themselves there seems to have been the heartiest good comradeship. Thus the father and the mother, the boys and the girls, found in their own home circle the best of friends and the happiest of times.

House and home. To have an ideal home people sometimes think it is necessary to possess a fine house, but the words "house" and "home" do not mean the same thing, although

A COUNTRY HOME

This spacious country house set in a grove by a running stream makes a dwelling place which for peace and beauty is unsurpassed.

they are sometimes used interchangeably. Most people, it is true, at some time in their lives, become attached to various places or objects because of persons or events associated with them. This is especially true of the dwelling one occupies; frequently a very real affection grows up about its every nook and corner. But in spite of these associations house and home are in reality very different. If it is necessary for a family to move from one locality to another, the home moves, too, even though a warm affection continues for the former residence.

The character of the dwelling, too, whether palace or cottage, has little to do with its being or not being a home. On the one hand, there are people who dwell in mansions who do not know the meaning of the word "home," while, on the other hand, there are those who occupy rude cabins who find them centers of peace and affection. This fact was clearly realized by the girl who wrote the following composition:

MY IDEAL HOME

It was a bitter-cold February night. The wind whistled and howled around the corners in relentless fury. The very tree tops groaned in the gale.

But in our little living-room all was warm and cozy. The fire roaring in the grate sent its flickering shadows over the room where mother sat knitting, the rhythmic click of her needles keeping time to dad's gentle breathing as he sat dozing over the evening paper. From the corner, where sister was reading "Polly's Adventures at Boarding School," came an occasional chuckle or sigh. And I sat gazing dreamily into the fire, trying to visualize my ideal home.

I built a little bungalow in the dancing flames, but it was rejected for something more inviting. I built and rejected many homes in the four corners of the earth and finally decided upon a stately mansion among the swaying palms. But it seemed so forbidding that I looked around with a contented sigh on our cozy little room. And I suddenly realized that what I had been traveling all over the world for, in imagination, was right in that very room. After all, what difference did it make where we lived as long as we were all together? And though many people before me had found this out, I had just discovered for myself that an ideal home is anywhere, be it north, south, east, or west, where one's loved ones may be together.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is patriotism? Compare patriotism and love of home.
2. Describe the early home life of some famous personage (see reading-list). In what ways do you think the greatness of this

person was due to early home influences? What facts support your opinion? Can you name other contributing influences?

3. Describe the home of some famous American (see Laselle, *Home and Country Readers*, Book II, pp. 193-210; Book IV, pp. 182-196).

4. Describe one of the famous homes in literature (see Laselle, *Home and Country Readers*, Book III, pp. 145-154; Book IV, pp. 167-177). What common characteristics do you find in all of them?

5. Compare Lincoln and Roosevelt as ideal fathers (see Bishop, *Theodore Roosevelt's Letters to his Children*, and Laselle, *Home and Country Readers*, Book I, pp. 86-93; also consult biographies in the reading-list).

6. What does Kathleen Norris think makes an ideal mother? (See her novel "Mother.")

7. In what ways were Tom and Maggie Tulliver ideal as brother and sister? (See George Eliot, *Mill on the Floss*.)

8. Compare home as portrayed in Burns's "Cotter's Saturday Night" and Whittier's "Snow-Bound."

9. Is there any limit to the obedience a child owes its parents? Explain.

10. What can children do to make their homes ideal?

SECTION V. DANGERS TO THE HOME

Meaning of dangers to the home. What is meant by "dangers to the home"? What are these dangers? What are the best ways to meet them? These questions should be kept in mind as this section is studied. After we have discussed the first question we shall then be ready to take up in order various dangers which threaten the home and remedies for meeting them.

Anything which hinders or prevents the family from performing its work is a danger to the home and a menace to society. Such a danger need not necessarily destroy the home, any more than cigarettes need necessarily cause death. But just as cigarettes injure the body, so any condition which interferes with the services of the family is

dangerous to its welfare and is a cause of serious concern to all who are interested in the well-being of the community.

1. *Disease.* The first danger to the home to be mentioned here is the long-continued illness or the early death of the father or mother. When either event occurs children cannot receive the parental care they so much need. The death of the father, for example, often leaves the family so

BOYS PLAYING CRAPS

A frequent result of the lack of proper home care.

unprovided for that the mother must leave the home and go to work in a factory, store, shop, or house. In such circumstances the children frequently have no oversight and run wild in the alleys and on the streets, learning bad habits and being exposed to constant dangers and temptations. The early death of the mother is also a loss to the home which can hardly be exaggerated. No matter how good the care that may be given by others, it is recognized by all that "no one can take the place of mother."

Sickness and death cannot always be avoided, but proper care will in many instances prevent disease and postpone death. Most parents can also carry enough life insurance to keep their families from being broken up even in the case of

their own deaths. To make it unnecessary for mothers to work outside their homes, many states now have mothers' pension laws. These laws provide that any mother who needs it may receive a certain sum of money every week to help her keep her family together or to meet her own necessities in her old age. Thus, by obedience to the laws of health, by safeguards against industrial accidents and diseases, by improvements in working-conditions, and by suitable laws, the home can to a large extent be protected against the dangers which threaten it through disease and death.

2. *Nonownership of residence.* Another danger to the home is the fact that few people own the buildings in which they live. In New York City a few years ago only one family out of eight owned its home wholly or in part. Of the large cities of the country Los Angeles had the highest percentage of home-ownership, but even here less than half the families owned their homes, and many of these were mortgaged. In rural communities, too, tenancy is steadily increasing.

APARTMENT BUILDINGS

In our large cities scores of families often live within a single building. Under such circumstances ownership of the residence by the occupants is ordinarily out of the question. The apartment buildings shown in the picture are of the more expensive type; rentals here are sometimes several thousand dollars annually.

It is difficult to see how this lack of ownership can be remedied. Indeed, it is questionable whether it is desirable for some people to own their homes even if they could do so. Many a workingman finds the possession of a home a positive handicap; if wages are lowered or working-conditions become bad the ownership of a home makes it difficult for him to move to a city or neighborhood in which wages may be higher or working-conditions more attractive.

At the same time, when the residence is not owned by those who live in it one of the ties which held the family together in the old days is missing and the home is thereby weakened. People become attached to a house where they were born, where their parents lived before them, and whose very site perhaps has been in the possession of the family for generations. The sentiment about such a place in itself helps to unite the family. As Clara Thomas Aldrich says:

We'd lived in that there same old house since Ma and Pa was
spliced,

An' us kids knew and loved that place—each cranny, rafter, joist.
An' my wife's home was jest the same—born there—grew up—
took me—

There weren't but two homes for girls in them days, don't you see?

Few of us, it is true, have ever felt this way about a house. It is doubtful whether half a dozen members of this class now live where they were born and whether a single one occupies the dwelling where his father or mother was born before him. We move so often that one dwelling-place comes to mean about as much as another if it has "modern conveniences" and is in a pleasant neighborhood. But the effect on the home, especially on the children and young people, is unfortunate. To quote Clara Thomas Aldrich again:

But now the kids is moved about each fall from flat to flat;
Each time they feels more crowded out—Canned Livin', ain't it that?
Tha ain't no place to have their pals in for a jolly time,
Tha ain't no place to entertain yer beau (for love's no crime).

3. *Employment outside the home.* Not only do dwellers in the city not own their homes but they no longer work in them. Until about one hundred and fifty years ago the home was the center of industry. The spinning-wheel was as common as the cradle. In the attic or neighboring shed stood the heavy hand loom. If hours of toil were long and work was hard the father at least was master of his time and could at will leave the loom or the shop and work in the garden or the stable. Parents were always at hand to counsel, direct, and instruct their children. In this way boys and girls learned at the same time from their fathers and mothers methods of work and ideas of right and wrong.

It is rarely so today in our cities. When the Industrial Revolution took place the making of goods in the home (the domestic system, it was called) was succeeded by their manufacture in a large building called the factory. Here hundreds and even thousands of people are employed. As a result, instead of working about the house as in former times, nowadays the father and the older boys, after a hasty breakfast, go to work in mill, factory, or office and as a rule do not return home until the end of the day.

Nor do the women have time for home-making, because, unfortunately, the mother and the older girls, too, are often engaged in outside employments. Statistics show that a steadily increasing number of the wage-earners of our country are women. According to the census more than one out of five of the workers in the United States are females. In Fall River, Massachusetts, almost one half of the women are employed in some gainful pursuit. Of the 303 different occupations listed in the census, women had entered 295. The only occupations in which they were not engaged were those of soldiers, sailors, marines, street-car drivers, foremen in fire departments, helpers to roofers and slaters, and brass-workers.

The effect on the home of this industrial situation can be seen at once. Without the care of the mother or the

oversight of the father, the younger children when not in school spend their time on the public playgrounds or loaf or learn bad habits in the streets and alleys. Thus, in many cases the parents do not have the time or the opportunity to make the home what it ought to be. In other words employment outside the home threatens the family, and unless institutions like the school and the church carry on the work formerly carried on by the family, not only boys and girls but the community as a whole will suffer severely.

4. *Poverty.* A fourth danger to the home is poverty. Low wages, lack of a sufficient amount of nourishing food, accidents in mines and factories, ill health, and shiftlessness are among the causes which make it impossible for many parents to provide properly for their children. Without a sufficient income parents cannot give their offspring the food, clothing, shelter, and education which are necessary for their welfare. Poverty thus handicaps the family in carrying on its work.

5. *Commercialized amusements.* In the old days the home was the center of merrymaking and amusement. Parties, dances, and social gatherings were usually held at the residences of the young people. The influence of the family circle was always present. In the city at least this is uncommon at the present time. Nowadays when the members of the family meet at the end of a day's work, if they are not so tired that they go to bed shortly after the evening meal, they generally seek amusement at the motion pictures, the club, the bowling-alley, the Y. M. C. A., the theater, or the concert hall. Thus the home not only loses a valuable opportunity to become the center of happiness, but recreation itself may become a danger. Here, too, there is need for the school and the church to do work formerly done by the family.

Summary. The family is the most important of all human institutions. Through it come existence, hereditary traits, and, to a large degree, variety. Upon it, during the early years of life, we depend for food, clothing, shelter, protection,

and education. In its circle we first acquire language, opinions and tastes, habits of work, ideas of government, notions of right and wrong, and conceptions of religion. In its capacity as home it is the center of the finest things in life. Owing to the greatness of its biological, economic, and educational

A SOCIAL GATHERING

Social gatherings in the home, especially in large cities, are not so common nowadays as they were in former times.

services, anything which limits its ability to perform these services endangers the welfare of the community.

The most serious dangers which menace the home are disease, tenancy, outside employment, poverty, commercialized amusements, and divorce. Obedience to the laws of health, combined with the protection of life insurance and mothers' pensions, will do much to protect the family against disease, death, and poverty; the school and the church can give effective aid in solving problems growing out of modern industry, commercialized amusements, and non-home

ownership; and better marriage and divorce laws and improvements in court procedure will go far toward lessening the divorce evil. Only by regarding the welfare of its children as its foremost interest can any community attain its highest development.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What percentage of the homes in your community are owned by the occupants? (Inquire at the public library.) How does tenancy interfere with the development of community spirit? What is meant by "community spirit"?

2. Are there any circumstances or conditions in the amusements or occupations of the people of your community which injure the home? Explain and illustrate.

3. From the stories of Abraham and Jacob what conclusions can you draw about their family life? (See Genesis xxiv, xxvii-xxx, xxxvii.)

4. Why should society regulate marriage? Is marriage regulated at all by custom? by public opinion? by institutions other than the government? Explain.

5. Explain the quotation at the head of the chapter.

6. Explain "The light that shines farthest burns brightest at home."

QUESTION FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that the ordinary person learns more at home than elsewhere.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

Reading aloud at Home

What I should like my Home to be

My Idea of a Living-room

The Pictures I want in my Home

What Mother means to our Family

Family Life in Old Virginia

The Home Life of the Alcotts

Parents who enjoy their Children's Fun

The Home and the Automobile

Fireplaces or Registers

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CHAPTER III

THE SCHOOL

Education is a better safeguard of liberty than a standing army.

EDWARD EVERETT

SECTION I. HOW WE LEARN

Instincts. The tendency of boys and girls to play, to imitate their elders, or to fight with one another is not learned after they are born; such tendencies are instincts which they bring with them into the world and which form a part of them in much the same way as their hands, feet, or eyes. For an instinct is an inherited impulse to act in a certain way when something happens to one.

All animals have instincts. Instinct makes a dog run after a cat, and a cat spit and snarl at a dog. Instinct causes the robin to fly south in the fall and come north in the spring. Instinct leads the beaver to construct a dam, the oriole to build a nest, the lion to prepare a lair. Instincts are inborn; they work automatically; they are in some ways as much a part of an animal as hair, fur, feathers, or skin. The most common instincts are play, strife, imitation, association, self-preservation, care of the young, and migration.

Control of instincts. Instincts, unlike parts of the body, can be changed or controlled in most animals by events which happen after birth. A dog can be trained to play with a cat, a lion to perform on a trapeze, an elephant to pile up lumber, and a kangaroo to box like a man, although all these actions are contrary to instinct. But the lungs cannot be trained to pump the blood through the body, nor the eyes to hear, nor the nose to see, no matter how great a need there may be for such a change. Instincts can be brought under

control, however, only when an animal is able to profit by what happens to it; that is, by experience. It is natural or instinctive, for instance, for a dog to walk on four legs, but, as every boy knows, a dog can be trained to walk on its hind legs by rewarding or punishing it until it learns the new trick. In such case its experience has modified its instinct.

But some members of the animal kingdom do not learn from experiences, no matter how painful or pleasant they are or how many times they may be repeated. The moth belongs to this class. Everyone is familiar with its actions where there is a lighted candle. The sight of the light starts it toward the flame. When it is burned, it goes back into the darkness. But a second sight brings a second return, and it continues to fly back and forth in this way until the candle is taken away or the moth itself is destroyed. In this instance instinct leads to suicide. The actions of the moth, in short, are purely instinctive. It perishes because it cannot be educated. Limited to instinctive reactions it learns nothing as it goes through life. Utterly dependent on its hereditary impulses, it is as perfect an insect on its first flight as on its last.¹

It is not so with the higher animals. A newly hatched chick will peck at and swallow any small object which attracts its attention, but in a few days it learns the difference between bread crumbs and white pebbles, juicy worms and colored yarn, fat bugs and hard pinheads. At first it has no more fear of a bee with power to sting than of a harmless house fly with nothing more dangerous than a buzz, but its instincts are soon modified by its experiences, and in this way it becomes educated.²

What education is. What, then, is necessary in order to learn? And what is education? We learn when we profit by what happens to us, when we can do a thing better the second time than we did it the first, when we do not repeat

¹W. C. Bagley, *Educative Process*, p. 4.

²E. Davenport, *Principles of Breeding*, pp. 389f.

mistakes, when our instincts become modified by experience. Education, in fact, depends on our capacity to profit by experience. Insects, like the moth, which lack this capacity are purely instinctive in their reactions and cannot be educated, for education is but the process by which one gains experiences that will enable him to act more efficiently in the future than in the past.¹

Importance of youth. Now it is in the early part of life that we can learn from experience most easily. At this time the brain and nervous system as well as the bones are plastic and flexible and can then, like soft clay, be easily impressed and molded. In this fact lies the great importance of youth. Moreover, since boys and girls are not able to do much work, they can give their entire time and energies to developing their minds and bodies during the very period of life when training is most effective.

The higher animals instinctively employ the youth of their offspring as a time for education. This is especially noticeable among birds. With the exception of the swallow, parent birds almost always find it necessary to coax or force their nestlings to try to fly.

Sparrows may be seen tempting their young into the air by offering them food and then flying off a little distance before it has been taken. The mother stork pushes the young birds off the edge of the nest or chimney stack on which they have been resting. Most of the birds of prey and many of the perching and singing birds push their young off a support and then hurriedly fly under them to break their fall.²

What is true of the higher animals is even more true of man. At his birth he is the most helpless, ignorant, and dependent of creatures. Along with his great need, however, there is fortunately equally great capacity to learn; for he not only has the power to learn from his own experiences

¹W. C. Bagley, *op. cit.* p. 22. ²P. C. Mitchell, *Childhood of Animals*, pp. 241f. Published by Frederick A. Stokes Company.

like the higher animals, but, unlike them, he can also profit by what other people have discovered in other times and in other countries. In addition, owing to the many years it takes him to grow up, he has a longer time during which it is easy to learn than has any other creature in the animal kingdom. It is largely, if not entirely, because of these two unique qualities—his greater capacity and his longer opportunity for learning—that he has become the ruler of the animal world.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Have you ever seen an animal teaching its young? If so, tell what it did.
2. Is there any difference between "education" and "experience"? If so, what?
3. Was Abraham Lincoln an educated man? Give reasons for your answer.
4. What does it mean to be "educated"? The same as "graduated"? Is there any way you can recognize an educated person when you meet him?
5. How is travel an educator? Which is better after graduating from high school—a year of travel or a year in college?
6. Prepare a brief talk describing how boys and girls were educated by the following peoples (select one): American Indians; ancient Greeks or Romans; Chinese or Japanese; French, Germans, or English (see book list at end of chapter).
7. Describe the education of some famous person in whom you are interested.

SECTION II. HOW THE AMERICAN SCHOOL DEVELOPED

Education in colonial times. Many of the settlers who first braved the dangers and hardships of the American wilderness were unable to read and write. Priscilla Alden, for example, did not know how to spell her own name, and the wife of Roger Williams had to use a "mark" for her signature. In Virginia, as late as 1671, tyrannical Governor Berkeley,

who hated the very thought of printing-presses and free schools, said, "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing, and I hope we shall not have these hundred years; for learning has brought disobedience, and heresy, and sects into the world, and printing has divulged them."

But among the colonists there were, especially in New England, those who had been trained in the great universities of the mother country and who, unwilling to have their children grow up in ignorance in the new land, did what they could from the first to provide means of education. They were enthusiastically supported in these efforts by most of the settlers. So successful were their endeavors that in Boston, as early

GERMANTOWN ACADEMY

This old Pennsylvania academy was opened in 1760, only eleven years after the earliest academy in America, that founded by Benjamin Franklin in Philadelphia. Compare this simple building with the modern high school shown on page 78.

as 1635, only five years after the little settlement was founded, the inhabitants established a school and voted a sum of money equal to twelve hundred dollars for its support.

Coming of the public-school system. Unwilling to let such an important matter as education be neglected in any community, the colonial legislature of Massachusetts in 1647, "to the end that learning may not be buried in the Graves of our fore Fathers," passed a law requiring every township containing as many as fifty families to appoint someone to teach the children to read and write. The expenses of these schools were to be met by taxation, by tuition charges, or

by a combination of the two methods, as the people of each town might decide. In the meantime (1636) the legislature had appropriated money for a university, which was later named Harvard College, after the young minister who at his death left to the college his library and a large sum of money.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY

Situated on rolling ground by beautiful Cayuga Lake, the campus of Cornell is one of the most attractive in the country. The university is typical of our best institutions of higher learning. It has fulfilled the aims of its founder, Ezra Cornell, who, on endowing it with half a million dollars, said, "I would found an institution where any person can find instruction in any study."

In this way were provided means of education from the primary or elementary schools through the university.

The school laws of Massachusetts were copied with various changes by all the New England colonies except one. Rhode Island, always noted for her peculiarities,—“stubborn Rhody” she was called,—alone had no school system as late as the Revolutionary War. In the middle colonies free schools were gradually established, and even in the South something was occasionally done to give children

a chance to learn. When at a later time (1787) Congress provided for the government of the Northwest Territory, one of the most important articles in its famous ordinance was that which declared that "schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

During these early times, however, the poverty of the people, especially in frontier communities, limited schooling at most to a few weeks in the year. School buildings were wretched; books were few in number and poor in quality; teachers were ignorant; and in the elementary schools little was taught but "readin', 'ritin', and 'rithmetic." Colleges and academies were few in number and superficial in instruction. None of the colleges opened their doors to women. But notwithstanding these limited opportunities, historians say that at the time of the Revolution there was probably no country in the world where so large a proportion of the people could read and write as in America.

With the coming of the factory, however, school attendance rapidly declined. Children toiled in the mills from twelve to fifteen hours a day. Frequently the Sabbath was the only day in the week for schooling. In Philadelphia, as late as 1830, not more than one sixth of the boys and girls who worked in the factories could read and write. And conditions were equally bad in New England. But in the thirties indignant protests were made, demands for free public schools were raised, and after a hard struggle reforms gradually came. First the public elementary schools, in some such form as we know them, were established in state after state; then, several decades later, out of the private academies came the modern public high school.

Recent educational progress. Progress in education has been rapid since the Civil War. Every state in the Union now has public elementary and high schools open to both the boys and the girls of the community. In these schools a wide education is offered. In all there are over 17,000 public high schools in the country, with an enrollment of 2,000,000

pupils and costing more than \$100,000,000. In some cities there are also free municipal colleges. In addition, many states, especially in the West, now support state universities, agricultural colleges, and normal schools. Instead of a narrow, rigid system of education in which poorly trained

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AGRICULTURAL STUDENTS ON AN EXPEDITION

In up-to-date agricultural schools the students take frequent excursions into the country to study soils, crops, and live stock at first hand. Why are such excursions valuable?

instructors teach the "three R's" in wretched buildings during a few weeks of the year, we have today in many places highly trained teachers, well-organized schools, beautiful and sanitary school buildings, and a wide-awake public keenly interested in everything which touches education.

Unfortunately many communities still have schools which fall far short of this ideal. In these communities school-rooms are overcrowded, equipment is inadequate and out of date, and teachers are poorly trained, underpaid, and overworked. Worst of all are the communities in which the

schools are used by politicians for their own selfish benefit rather than for the welfare of the children. What is the condition of the schools in your community?

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why was Governor Berkeley opposed to public education? Why were the Puritans in New England so eager to have it?
2. What kind of textbooks did boys and girls have in colonial days? in the early nineteenth century? (See Clifton Johnson, *Old-Time Schools and Schoolbooks*; also Gaillard Hunt, *Life in America One Hundred Years Ago*.) Contrast with your textbooks.
3. Find out all you can about the history of your own school.

SECTION III. HOW THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS ARE CONTROLLED AND SUPPORTED

Who controls the schools? Everyone knows, of course, that they are in direct charge of the teachers, the principals, and the superintendent. What we are interested in here is to learn the source of their authority.

Local control. Although the answers to this question will differ in details in various parts of the country, they will be alike in one important respect; namely, that authority over the schools belongs to some local official or governing body which in turn receives it from the state. In rural communities, for example, it belongs to officers of the district, township, or county.

Rural schools. In the district system of control townships are divided for school purposes into small districts. The people in each of these districts elect a director or a board of directors to select the teacher and provide for the needs of the school or schools in the district. In the township system the schools of the township are placed under the control of a trustee or board of trustees chosen by the voters. Under this system it is easy to consolidate or unite schools which have only a few pupils by transporting to a central building

the children who live at a distance. In this way graded schools, improved equipment, beautiful buildings, trained teachers, and efficient supervision are made possible. In many states general oversight of all the schools rests with a county superintendent chosen by the voters or the trustees. The Southern states usually have the county system. Here

all the rural and village schools of the county are placed under the authority of county officials. In this system chief supervision is generally in the hands of the county superintendent of schools.

City schools. As a rule city schools are in charge of a city superintendent, who is selected by the school board of the city. In certain cities the board is

A ONE-ROOM RURAL SCHOOL

More than six million children are enrolled in schools like this. Compare it with the consolidated school shown on the opposite page.

elected by the voters; in others it is appointed by the mayor, usually with the approval of the city council; in a few places it is appointed by state or city judges. The board usually has wide powers; it selects teachers, purchases school property, provides for new buildings, directs the purchase of supplies, and fixes the salaries of the superintendent, teachers, and other school employees. In many cities it also determines the course of study, the length of the school year, and the qualifications and selection of teachers.

State control. The authority which is exercised by these local officials comes in every case from the state. It is the state which determines whether the district, the township, or

A CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL

4

A CONVEYANCE FOR PUPILS

Opportunities for manual-training shops, an assembly hall, laboratories, a gymnasium, a kitchen, a sewing-room, and a library are furnished in a well-organized consolidated school. Pupils are carried to and from school in motor busses or wagons during all kinds of weather.

the county school system shall be used in rural communities and what the character and powers of the school government in cities shall be. Unless it grants such powers to the local school authorities, it determines also the course of study, the length of the school year, the ages during which children must go to school, and the qualifications for teachers.

Although there is a great variety in the schools of different states, owing to the fact that each state decides for itself how its schools shall be managed, the methods of control are generally much the same. In each there is a superintendent or commissioner of public instruction, who is usually elected to his office by the voters or who is appointed by the governor. It is the duty of the superintendent or his assistants to visit each county in the state from time to time, to distribute information on educational matters, to improve the schools in every way possible, and to exercise general supervisory powers. In some states he is under the supervision or control of a state board of education.

Support of the schools. On the average the education of each child in the public elementary schools in 1918 cost almost \$35 and each pupil in the high schools about \$60. The total cost amounted to over \$760,000,000—a little more than our yearly expenditure for tobacco. By far the greater part of this money is raised by taxation levied by the local school authorities. In many states the local taxes are increased by state taxes and by grants of money from the permanent state school funds.

With few exceptions these permanent school funds had their origin in gifts of land from the national government. Since 1802 Congress has granted each new state for school purposes one section of land (640 acres) in each township in the state; and since 1848, two sections. In most cases these school lands have been sold and the proceeds taken to form the basis of the permanent school fund of the state. In some parts of the country state aid is distributed on the basis of attendance; in other parts it has been used to

bring about improvements in the local schools by making the grant of money depend upon the kind of school maintained by the local authorities. In the latter cases the rule has been that the better the school, the greater the amount of money given.

National government and education. Although education is carried on by state authority the national government has

AN INDUSTRIAL CONTINUATION SCHOOL

Nowadays many industrial concerns conduct schools in which their employees may acquire a business or technical education. This is a view of the stenographic and comptometer section of a continuation school in a large industrial plant.

also been interested in the work. As mentioned above, Congress made liberal land grants for the common schools in the new states almost from the beginning. In 1862, in order to encourage agricultural education, it offered large tracts of public land to each state which would use for an agricultural college the proceeds from the sale of the lands; within the last fifty years it has granted over eleven million acres for this purpose. In addition Congress votes funds every year for the support of such schools and offers a much larger

sum to states which will appropriate an equal amount. In 1920 more than six and a half million dollars was allotted for extension work in agriculture. During recent years Congress has also made liberal appropriations for the education of disabled soldiers and for various kinds of vocational instruction.

While the national government has no control over the educational institutions in the country, it exercises a considerable influence over them through its financial appropriations. It also maintains a Bureau of Education as one of the divisions of the Department of the Interior. This bureau collects and distributes educational statistics and information about educational experiments and makes valuable suggestions about the conduct of schools and higher institutions of learning.

School attendance. Practically every state in the Union now has either partial or complete compulsory school-attendance laws. In most states children must attend school until they are fourteen years old; in some they are required to attend until they are sixteen. Largely as a result of such laws the number of our population ten years of age and over who cannot write in any language has been reduced from 17 per cent in 1880 to 5.8 per cent in 1920.

In more than two thirds of the states continuation schools have been established, in which young people who have left school are required to attend for a certain number of hours a week. In Wisconsin, for example, all boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and sixteen who drop school to go to work must attend some school at least half the time; while those between sixteen and eighteen, unless they are high-school graduates, must attend school for eight hours each week. In some states employers are required to pay wages for the time spent in such schools. Instruction is planned to fit boys and girls for earning a living and for lives of greater happiness.

Libraries, museums, and art galleries. In addition to the public schools institutions like libraries, museums, and art

galleries furnish education for millions of our people. In many states traveling libraries are supported by the state, and communities which otherwise would not have access to good books can obtain them by paying the cost of transportation. By their collections of relics, scientific specimens, paintings, and statues the museums and art galleries furnish information and pleasure to thousands. Never before in the history of the world have such wide and varied opportunities for education been given to any people as in America. Nowadays anyone who wishes an education can obtain it.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Napoleon said, "Public instruction should be the first object of government." What did he mean? Was he right? Why should a man with no children be taxed to support schools?

2. How are the public schools in your community controlled?

3. What was the total expenditure last year for the public schools in your community? What was the expense for each pupil in the elementary schools? in the high schools? Compare with the cost for the entire country as given on page 64. (For local expenditures see the last annual report of the superintendent of schools.)

4. Contrast the advantages and disadvantages in the district, township, and county school systems.

5. Does your state have a permanent school fund? If so, how did it originate? How large is it now?

6. Does your school receive financial aid from the state? If so, how much? Are there any requirements which must be met to obtain this assistance? For what is the money spent? Ask your principal or superintendent.

7. What is the compulsory school-attendance law in your state? Who enforces it in your community?

8. What is vocational education? Does your school furnish such training? Explain.

9. Are there any continuation schools in your community? If so, what children must attend them? What instruction is given in them?

SECTION IV. WHAT EDUCATION SHOULD BE

Aims. In the past each people adopted the kind of education which it thought would best fit the child for his part in the community of which he was a member. The education of the Indians was intended to make hunters and

SCHOOL GARDENING

Gardening affords exercise and enjoyment and in addition provides flowers and vegetables for the children to take home.

warriors; that of the Spartans and the Romans, to form soldiers; that of the Athenians, to produce athletes and thinkers and artists; that of the Puritans, to develop God-fearing, industrious men and women. Each succeeded in its aim in large degree. What should modern education be? What are the needs of today?

There are many different answers to these questions. Some people say that the chief purpose of education should be to prepare boys and girls to support themselves; others

declare that education should be primarily to promote social efficiency or to prepare pupils for community life.

Earning a living. Those who believe that the chief aim of education should be to prepare boys and girls for earning a living would have the schools teach nothing but what contributes to that end. They would have the school teach

A HIGH-SCHOOL CARPENTER SHOP

Most high schools now contain well-equipped shops for carpentry and forge work.

only "practical subjects." They are interested chiefly in training that will fit pupils to earn their bread and butter.

Even if their idea of education were accepted as correct, it would not be easy to select the courses and subjects which should be taught to accomplish the object in view. Over three hundred different occupations were listed in a recent census report. Training which from the practical standpoint may be essential for one pupil will often be useless for another. A boy or a girl who wants to be a florist has little practical use for the things which may be essential for a pupil who intends to become a machinist, a physician, a

telegrapher, or a journalist. It is, moreover, not always possible to tell whether a subject is "practical." In later life many a person has found "use" for knowledge which, when it was first learned, appeared to be worthless.

But the chief objection to the "bread-and-butter" aim of education is that we do not live by bread alone. We need food for our heads and for our hearts as well as for our stomachs. And as has been said many times,—but never too often,—it is more important to make a life than to make a living, for a man is greater than his job and the creator more important than the thing he creates. "He is to be educated because he is a man, and not because he is to make shoes, nails, and pins."

Social efficiency. There is an ever-growing number of people who advocate social efficiency as the true goal for the school. They regard men as social beings living in groups, communities, and nations, each dependent on the other and each responsible for a certain part in the world's life and work. They consider the school as a social group and the boys and girls who attend it as living a life as real as that of their elders. As the agent of society they believe the school should train boys and girls to become useful members of the community. They maintain therefore that the controlling aim in education should be the promotion of social efficiency:

Now what is social efficiency, and what should the school do to promote it? Social efficiency means ability to work with others so as to carry on effectively the various activities of the community. In order that he may do his part fully the socially efficient individual should have good health; he should be able to support himself and those dependent upon him; he should know how to use his leisure time profitably; he should be able and willing to work with others; and he should have high ideals and right habits. To make pupils socially efficient, therefore, the school should give instruction and training in health, occupation, the use of leisure time,

citizenship, and the formation of right ideals and habits. The school which fails to provide for any of these needs fails by that much in preparing its pupils for community life.¹

LEARNING UP-TO-DATE SUBJECTS

The making of bread and the repairing of engines, as well as mathematics and chemistry, are taught nowadays in many large high schools. In the picture at the left one girl is slicing bread for sandwiches, while the other is preparing a fish for baking. In the picture at the right the teacher is explaining the construction of an automobile engine; parts of the cylinders have been cut away in order to show the inside mechanism.

Educational methods in modern schools. In early American schools all instruction was given by means of textbooks. This custom probably owes its origin to the early Puritans, who emphasized the necessity of everyone's being able to read the Bible. From that day to this the American school has been for the most part a reading school.

¹W. C. Bagley, *The Educative Process*, pp. 44-46, 58-65.

About a generation ago, however, a change began to appear. Instead of confining instruction to the pages of books, the teachers of chemistry, physics, and the other natural sciences introduced the laboratory. In this way the teachers of science, instead of having pupils merely read *about* natural laws, brought them into direct touch with nature. Similar methods have been successfully employed in many other lines of instruction. Shop and forge work have become universal in manual-training courses; sewing and cooking are invariably practiced in courses in domestic science; while gymnastic exercises and athletic contests form the largest part of physical education.

The school authorities in many communities encourage also various student activities. Papers and magazines, which afford practice in writing and at the same time serve the school, are maintained. Literary societies and debating clubs, which furnish pupils an opportunity in oral expression and at the same time give them training in citizenship, are permitted. In many schools parties and picnics, which aid in developing school spirit and social courtesies, are common. Class projects and recitations are occasionally planned and executed by the pupils. Other school enterprises, which give business training to many pupils, are provided, while various class organizations, clubs, and societies, which arouse their originality and responsibility and which give them direct experience with matters closely related to effective citizenship, are encouraged. These are some of the ways in which an up-to-date school attempts to make its pupils useful members of the community.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Is school education needed more by the city child or by the country child? Why? Name important ways outside of school by which each is educated.
2. What is the chief difference between the "bread-and-butter" aim of education and the "social-efficiency" aim?

3. Why should the community determine what shall be taught in the schools? Why are you not always able to tell what studies are of most value to you? Should all pupils take the same course?

4. Criticize the studies you are now taking, from the standpoint of the aims of education given in this section. What does "criticize" mean? (Look it up in the dictionary.)

5. What subjects are required of all pupils in your school?

6. What do you study or do in school which prepares you to make the best use of your leisure time?

7. Should education have a present as well as a future value? If so, why? Does yours? Explain.

8. How should this class be conducted to be of the most value as training in citizenship? What is citizenship? What changes can you suggest in the school which might be helpful in this respect?

SECTION V. THE MONEY VALUE OF AN EDUCATION

Value of tools. Compared with a full-grown lion an unarmed man is contemptible. The lion can see farther, hear better, and run faster. An unarmed man in a fight with a lion would have as much chance as a mouse with a cat.

Man's physical weakness, however, together with his superior ability to profit by experience, proved his salvation. Not able unarmed to contend successfully with lions, tigers, and the other fierce animals of the jungle he secured some sticks; twisted a cord out of fiber; fashioned himself a bow; from stick, flint, and feather made an arrow; and with this bow and arrow, this tool, he became more than a match for the king of beasts himself. Physically a weakling, man's use of a tool—something a wild animal never uses—has made him the master of all creatures.

A few years ago an interesting experiment was tried with a hungry monkey. A long glass tube was fixed upright in the monkey's cage. Within the tube was dropped a banana. In the presence of the monkey the experimenter took a sharp-pointed stick, put it down the tube, thrust it into the banana, and lifted the latter out of the tube. This was repeated a

number of times, the sharp-pointed stick was laid on the floor of the cage, and the monkey was then released.

What did the monkey do? - Dashing to the tube, he tried to get the banana by biting through the glass, by reaching down the tube, and by clawing about it. He utterly ignored the sharp-pointed stick. Once more the experimenter picked up the stick and lifted out the banana in the sight of the monkey, and again the latter was released only to repeat his former unsuccessful efforts. And so the test went on; but no matter how often it was repeated the monkey would not use the stick.

Now some boys and girls are very much like that monkey. They too ignore the stick and make right for the banana,—the stick being an education and the banana a job. Unwilling to take the time to get an education they leave school and go to work

A BLIND-ALLEY JOB

Will this boy's present occupation fit him for a better position later on?

as soon as the law will permit. Boys will leave school to secure a few dollars a week selling newspapers, carrying messages, or driving grocers' wagons. Girls will leave school to earn small sums as clerks in five-and-ten-cent stores, as cash girls in department stores, or as office girls for lawyers, dentists, or physicians.

Blind-alley jobs. Usually boys and girls who thus leave school can secure only blind-alley jobs. A blind alley is an alley which goes halfway through a block and then stops: it is no thoroughfare; you cannot pass through it; to get

to any place you must turn around and go out the way you entered. Blind-alley jobs, likewise, are those that have no future; they lead nowhere; at the end of ten years they are little better than they were at the beginning. And meantime the days of youth, during which it is easy to learn, pass away.

Blind-alley jobs for the most part are the only positions open to the untrained boy or girl. Occasionally, as in war times, wages may be high for a while, but they seldom remain so. In ordinary times—according to government statistics—a laborer in such a job finds that his earnings increase slowly until he is about twenty or twenty-five years of age; up to thirty or thirty-five they are at their highest point; then after thirty-five his

earning power generally declines. The educated man, on the other hand, after a steady advance receives his highest income usually between the ages of forty and sixty years.

Not long ago the newspapers told of a young man of twenty, married and a father, who, realizing that he was in a blind-alley occupation, had the courage to quit his job

© Ewing Galloway

EX-SOLDIERS LEARNING ENGINEERING

These men are taking advantage of the opportunity given them by Uncle Sam to learn a useful and profitable occupation.

and go back to school. A brave thing to do ; but how much better had he remained in school when a boy and secured his educational tool earlier in life !

Education necessary for financial success. The door to financial success is the school. Nowadays practically all occupations have their own body of information, the knowledge of which is necessary to success and the ignorance of which leads to failure. A few years ago one of the leading bankers of America said :

There has been introduced such complexity into modern business and such a high degree of specialization that the young man who begins without the foundation of an exceptional training is in danger of remaining a mere clerk or bookkeeper. Commercial and industrial affairs are conducted on so large a scale that the neophyte has little chance to learn broadly, either by observation or experience. He is put at a single task ; the more expert he becomes at it the more likely it is that he will be kept at it, unless he has had a training in his youth which has fitted him to comprehend in some measure the relation of his task to those which others are doing.¹

Of course the chief end of education is not to make money. As one writer says : "The most valuable result of right education is the broadening, deepening, and refining of human life. This result can no more be measured by dollars and cents than truth, self-sacrifice, and love can be made out of pork and potatoes."² While this is perfectly true the money value of education should not be ignored. Certainly it should not be overlooked by boys and girls who are tempted to quit school to earn money in a blind-alley job. As never before, the world needs educated and trained workers who can carry on the complex activities of the modern arts, the trades, and the professions—and it is willing to pay for them. Don't be a monkey !

¹Quoted by A. C. Ellis in "Money Value of Education," p. 13.

²Ibid. p. 5.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name several blind-alley jobs. What is the chief difference between the work connected with a blind-alley job and a position which has a future?
2. What high-school subjects will be of most value in preparing you for your life's work? Are you sure? How do you know?
3. Do you intend to go to college? If so, what college or university would you like to attend? For what reasons?
4. Which is better—to go to college immediately after graduating from high school or to work a year first?

SECTION VI. HOW TO GET THE MOST OUT OF SCHOOL

School spirit. After the battle of Crécy, so the story goes, there was found on the field of conflict the crest of King John of Bohemia, bearing the words *Ich dien*, "I serve." Inspired by the unselfish devotion of this blind old king who had died fighting bravely in the thickest of the fray, where his knights at his request had led him, Edward, the Black Prince, forthwith adopted the device as his own. From that day to this the phrase "I serve" has been a motto of the heir to the throne of Great Britain.

He who would get the most out of school must cherish the same ideal, for in school, as in life, the highest satisfaction is to be found in giving, not getting. The boy or the girl who thinks first of the interests of the school, who is jealous of its good name, who is eager to aid any enterprise which will be to its benefit, who is willing to sacrifice time and personal advantage for its welfare, is the one who will find school a delight and its memory a lasting satisfaction.

Such a pupil has the finest sort of school spirit, for school spirit consists not so much in cheering the team on to victory or even in supporting it in times of defeat—important as such support is—as in being loyal to its ideals and purposes. School spirit in fact is not noise: it is an attitude of mind and heart. It manifests itself in pride in the

appearance of the school and its surroundings and in thoughtful care of its property. Pupils who have true school spirit are considerate of schoolmates and teachers and are enthusiastic and loyal supporters of all school activities.

Athletics. An American student attending Oxford University, England, a few years ago was very much surprised,

HIGH SCHOOL AND STADIUM AT TACOMA, WASHINGTON

This is one of the best-equipped high schools on the Pacific coast. Its stadium, which is the largest high-school amphitheater in the world, will seat between 40,000 and 50,000 people. Not only athletic contests and exhibitions but concerts, addresses, and public entertainments are given here.

on going to the athletic field to take part in a game of football, to find no spectators. "Where is the crowd?" he asked. "Crowd?" came the reply, "You mean—the other students?" "Yes." "Why, they're all playing their own games." And so it was. For at an English school practically every student goes in for some athletic sport.

It should be so in America. Soon after you enter school in the fall it is a good thing to decide what to go in for. You should, of course, for the mere fun of it, if for no other

reason, take part in some athletic sport instead of limiting your physical training to that required by the school.

Intellectual activities. You should also take part in some intellectual activity, such as debating, public speaking, or oratory. You should support the school paper, the literary society, or the musical organizations. By joining in some of these enterprises you will not only show true school spirit by helping to carry on the activities of the school, but you will have opportunities to form friendships which will last for a lifetime. Of course no sensible pupil will overdo these activities; to center on one or at most two of them is the wisest plan to follow.

Mastery of lessons. Eagerness to support school activities and form friendships should not make you forget that the main business in school, after all, is the mastery of one's lessons. To get the most out of school in this respect you should know how to study to the best advantage; that is, how to master your lessons in the least possible time. Here as elsewhere in life much depends on the kind of habits you form. To help its pupils in this respect one school furnishes each of them at the beginning of the year with a copy of the following:

STUDY-HELPS¹

Good work habits are quite as important as subject matter. Your aim should be to do the job in less time and do it better.

1. *Form a time-and-place habit* by studying the lesson in the same subject in the same place at the same time each day. . . .

2. *Have proper study conditions and equipment*: a quiet room not too warm, good light at the left, a straight chair and table, the necessary books, tools, and materials.

3. *Study independently.* Do your own work and use your own judgment, asking for help only when you cannot proceed without it, thus developing ability to think for yourself and the will-power and self-reliance essential to success.

¹The University of Chicago High School.

4. *Arrange your tasks economically*: study those requiring fresh attention, like reading, first; those in which concentration is easier, like written work, later.

5. *Sit straight and go at the work vigorously*, with confidence and determination, without lounging or waste of time. When actually tired, exercise a moment, open the window, change to a different type of work.

6. *Be clear on the assignment* and the form in which it is to be delivered. In class take notes when the assignment is made; mark things to be carefully learned. When in doubt, consult the teacher.

7. *In committing material to memory*, learn it as a whole; go over it quickly first, then more carefully, and then again until you have it. In learning forms, rules, vocabularies, etc. it will help to repeat them aloud.

8. *In studying material to be understood and digested but not memorized*, first go over the whole quickly; then carefully, section by section; if possible, then review the whole quickly.

9. *Use judgment as well as memory*: analyze paragraphs, select important points, note how minor ones are related to them. . . .

10. *Study an advance lesson promptly* and review before going to class; recall memorized matter by repeating it, aloud if necessary; think through a series of points to see that you have them in order in your mind.

11. *Use all the material aids available*: index, appendix, notes, vocabulary, maps, illustrations in your textbook, as well as other books and periodicals.

Success in school and success in later life. At times young people and even adults feel that it makes little or no difference to one's later success whether he gets a "high grade" in his studies or just "passes." What are the facts in the case?

In the University of Wisconsin a few years ago there was a comparison of the records made by hundreds of students in high school and the university. The investigation showed that "above 80 per cent of those who were in the first one fourth of their high-school classes remained in the upper half

of their classes throughout the four years of their university course, and that above 80 per cent of those who were in the lowest one fourth in their high-school classes failed to rise above the line of mediocre scholarship in the university." A comparison of the records of college graduates with graduates of professional schools revealed a like situation: students who had done poor work in college almost invariably did poor work in medicine, law, and engineering.

Similar results appeared when the records made by students in college were compared with their success or failure in later life—whether measured by fame, salary, or other distinctions. There were exceptions, of course, but as a rule students who did poor work in high school, college, or professional institutions failed or attained mediocre success in life. So close is the relation between achievement in school and achievement in later life that a careful student of education says that he has "found no exception in the records of any American college to the general rule that those who achieve most before graduation are likely to achieve most after graduation."¹

Marks, progress, thoughtlessness. Not that "marks" should be your aim in school work. On the contrary, the mastery of knowledge for its own sake and for the increased service it will enable you to give to others should be your goal. But "marks," although unimportant in themselves, should not be disregarded, for they are the mileposts which show you the progress you are making in your journey, and it does not pay to be thoughtless about progress, especially in youth. As Ruskin says:

When a man has done his work and nothing can any way be materially altered in his fate, let him jest with his fate, if he will; but what excuse can you find for wilfulness of thought . . . when every crisis of future fortune hangs on your decisions? A youth

¹W. T. Foster, "Should Students Study?" in *Harper's Magazine*, Vol. CXXXIII (September, 1916), p. 615. Quotations in the text on this topic are taken from this admirable article.

thoughtless when all the happiness of his home forever depends on the chances . . . of an hour! A youth thoughtless! when the career of all his days depends on the opportunity of a moment. A youth thoughtless! when his every act is a foundation stone of future conduct! . . . Be thoughtless in *any* after years, rather than now.

Or, as a celebrated American psychologist puts it:

Could the young but realize how soon they will become mere walking bundles of habits, they would give more heed to their conduct while in the plastic state. We are spinning our own fates, good or evil, and never to be undone. Every smallest stroke of virtue or of vice leaves its never-so-little scar. The drunken Rip Van Winkle, in Jefferson's play, excuses himself for every fresh dereliction by saying, "I won't count this time!" Well! he may not count it and a kind heaven may not count it; but it is being counted none the less. Down among his nerve cells and fibers the molecules are counting it, registering it, and storing it up to be used against him when the next temptation comes.¹

How, then, can you get the most out of school? The answer is first, by mastering your lessons to the best of your ability; second, by going in for some athletic sport in addition to doing the regular "gym" work; third, by taking part outside of the classroom in some intellectual activity such as public speaking, debating, or the school paper; fourth, by putting the interests of the school constantly before the interests of self. In short he gets most out of school who puts most into it. To alter slightly the familiar lines,

For life is the mirror of king and slave,
'Tis just what we are and do;
Then give to the school the best you have
And the best will come back to you.

Summary. Education depends on one's ability to learn by experience. This ability is greatest in childhood and youth,

¹W. James, Principles of Psychology, Briefer Course, p. 148. Published by Henry Holt and Company.

since at that time the mind is most easily impressed. Opinions differ widely as to what the chief aim of education should be, but most intelligent people believe nowadays that its goal should be social efficiency, the training of boys and girls to become useful members of the community. The American people have always been interested in education and in recent years have shown themselves more and more willing to give it their generous support. Today, in fact, everyone who wants an education can secure it. For financial success in life schooling is more necessary now than ever before. Statistics prove conclusively that pupils who quit school early can usually enter only blind-alley jobs, where they can earn much less money than their comrades who improve their usefulness by more education. To get the most out of school one should master his lessons, take part in athletic sports, support school activities of an intellectual character, and show true school spirit.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name the study habits listed on page 79 which you have already formed. Which do you find the most helpful? Explain any other study habit which you have found useful.

2. What is the most valuable subject you are now studying? Why? What is the most interesting? Why? What is the most uninteresting? Why? Can you do anything to make an uninteresting study interesting? Can interest be acquired, or is it instinctive? Are you sure? Explain.

3. Suggest changes in this school which would make it more useful to you. Would these changes make it more useful to others? How can such changes be brought about?

4. What dangers in the home are corrected by the school?

5. Of what value to you are the social organizations in this school? Of what value are you to them?

6. What is meant by school government? Why is it necessary? Is the method used in this school the best to make good citizens? Give reasons for your opinion.

7. Can you continue your education if you do not go to college?

8. What was the educational rank of your state in 1918? See Appendix B, Column 8. Has the rank of your state risen or fallen since 1910? If so, can you discover any reasons for the change? Ask your principal or school superintendent.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, That school attendance should be made compulsory for all young people under eighteen years of age.

Resolved, That free textbooks should be furnished in all public schools.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

The Finest Teacher I ever Knew
 The Soliloquy of a School Clock
 A Chapter from the History of this School
 The Study I like Best
 What a Schoolboy's Pencil Thinks About
 An Ideal School
 Why I like this School
 The Honor System
 What "Marks" mean to Me

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 PATRI, A. A Schoolmaster of the Great City.
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 *TAPPAN, EVA M. When Knights were Bold, pp. 276-289.

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 CAMP, WALTER. Danny Fists.
 *DICKENS, CHARLES. Nicholas Nickleby.
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 *EGGLESTON, EDWARD. The Hoosier Schoolmaster.
 *GORDON, CHARLES (RALPH CONNOR). Glengarry School Days.
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 HUGHES, THOMAS. Tom Brown at Oxford.
 *IRVING, WASHINGTON. The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.
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 JOHNSON, OWEN M. The Tennessee Shad.
 JOHNSON, OWEN M. The Varmint.
 *KELLY, MYRA. Little Citizens.
 KELLY, MYRA. Wards of Liberty.
 KIPLING, RUDYARD. "Baa, Baa, Black Sheep," in Wee Willie Winkie and Other Stories.
 KIPLING, RUDYARD. Stalky and Company.
 MARTIN, GEORGE M. Emmy Lou, her Book and Heart.
 *NEWBOLT, HENRY. The Torch of Life.
 SINGMASTER, ELSIE. When Sarah went to School.
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CHAPTER IV

THE CHURCH

If we traverse the world, it is possible to find cities without walls, without letters, without kings, without wealth, without coin, without schools and theaters; but a city without a temple, or that practiseth not worship, prayer, and the like, no one ever saw.—PLUTARCH

SECTION I. HOW RELIGIOUS BELIEFS DEVELOPED

Nature worship. Travelers and explorers have never discovered any tribe or people which did not believe in some kind of god or supernatural being. As the old Roman orator Cicero said two thousand years ago, "There is no nation so ignorant and so savage as not to know there is a God."

With primitive man this belief was usually very simple. In all nature about him—mountain, forest, or waving grass—he saw living forms, with feelings, passions, and motives much like his own, and possessing powers potent for good or ill in their effect upon his happiness. To him there were gods of the waves, of the lightnings, of the desert, and of the storm-clouds. Thinking then of sun and moon, wind and rain, river and mountain, dangerous beast and harmless waterfowl, as beings able to help him get food, shelter, and comforts if their favor were only gained, or to cause him want, suffering, and disaster if their anger were aroused, he sought by dance, sacrifice, and prayer to avoid their displeasure and to win their approval and protection.

Combined with this nature worship there was, among the most ignorant tribes, the veneration of all kinds of objects. Sticks or stones or bark, roots, furs, claws of birds or animals, feathers, teeth,—anything which happened to strike his fancy was made an object of worship by the savage because he

thought these things were inhabited by spirits or genii. A survival of this practice in civilized countries today is the confidence some people feel in charms of various sorts,—in a horseshoe, a rabbit's foot, an old copper coin, a lucky stone, a buckeye, or a four-leaf clover.

Ancestor worship. Along with the worship of nature by primitive races there was frequently the veneration of ancestors. The early Romans, for example, believed that when a

INDIAN GRAVE MONUMENT

This carved and painted figure represents the bird held sacred by a tribe of Indians on the Pacific coast. Most primitive peoples have some animal or object which they revere as the ancestor, protector, or symbol of the clan or tribe.

member of the family died his spirit became a god with power to bless or harm the survivors. Unless food and drink were placed for him before the family hearth and unless other religious ceremonies in his honor were carried out as custom demanded,—so it was thought,—he would return to torment his living relatives who were responsible for the neglect. One Roman writer, in fact, tells of a spirit who haunted an old house so persistently as to frighten his unfaithful kinsfolk to death.

Countless illustrations of the above statements could be given. The ancient Chaldeans and Babylonians worshiped the stars and the planets. The Incas of Mexico and the early Persians revered the sun. The Ojibwa regarded fire as

A JAPANESE TEMPLE

Japan is often thought of as a land of temple bells and cherry blossoms; some of its graceful temples are made of bronze and lacquer and are said to have roofs of gold.

divine. The ancient Egyptians considered the Nile a sacred stream. The Hindus worshiped the Ganges. The early Britons offered up sacrifices to the trees. The North American Indians had as deities such animals as the beaver, bear, antelope, muskrat, turtle, and coyote. The Chinese, as well as the Romans, worshiped their ancestors.

Slight connection between religion and morality in primitive faiths. In all these early faiths there was, as a rule, little or

no connection between what men believed about the gods and what they believed their duties were to their fellow men; that is, between religion and morality. It is important to remember that *religion*, strictly speaking, deals only with man's conception of a supernatural being, or beings, and with his duties toward them. *Morality*, on the other hand, is confined to his relations and duties to his fellow man. Nowadays we are so accustomed to think of religion and morality as inseparable that it is hard for us to believe there ever was a time when the two were quite distinct. Such, however, was the case in practically all early religions.

In fact, there was very little in the character of heathen gods or in the teachings of heathen religions to cause men to think there was any connection between religion and morality or to inspire them to lead upright lives. In ancient Greece the gods of Mount Olympus are frequently described as selfish, jealous, evil beings; the goddesses as vain, frivolous, petty, and deceitful creatures. Mercury is pictured as a thief and a liar and the god of thieves and liars. Venus, though the goddess of love, is cruel and spiteful in her treatment of Psyche. Apollo and Diana show themselves merciless in their slaughter of the children of Niobe. Jupiter, the chief of the gods, is a false husband and a fickle ruler. There was little or nothing in such beings to cause men to love them or to inspire people to deeds of kindness.

The gods were not much interested, as a rule, in human needs and problems. It is not strange, therefore, that when a Greek wanted advice on a matter of conduct, or comfort in a time of sorrow or trouble, he went to a philosopher, not to a priest. Socrates, who taught as clearly as any of the ancient philosophers that God cared how men lived, was condemned to death because his teaching was thought to be irreligious and a menace to the community. And in all these respects Greek religion was much like other pagan faiths.¹

¹ G. B. Adams, *Civilization during the Middle Ages*, pp. 52 f.

We should not be surprised, in view of these facts, at the cruel and immoral practices which usually had an

important place in the worship of the heathen gods. It was natural that deities so wicked and cruel would delight in immoral and inhuman ceremonies. Pagan religious rites, from our point of view, were often scenes of immorality and wickedness. The sacrifice of human beings was common. In southern India the hideous four-armed goddess Kali was worshiped with human sacrifices; in Carthage helpless children were offered to the cruel deities of the city; even the Greeks and Romans for centuries put young men and girls to death as tributes to their

BUDDHA

☛ E. H. Newman

This massive bronze statue of Buddha, almost nine hundred years old, is the chief attraction of the town of Kamakura, Japan. It is almost fifty feet high,—as high as a three-story building. Its eyes, which are four feet in length, are pure gold, while the large boss in the forehead is made of silver. Thousands of people, both native and foreign, visit Kamakura every year to see this statue.

gods. Our forefathers in Britain and in the German and Norse forests showed their religious zeal by offering human sacrifices to the spirits they feared and worshiped.

Religion of the ancient Hebrews. There was one remarkable exception to this almost universal cruelty and degradation in ancient religions. From very early times the religion of the Hebrews was marked by a purity and nobility which make it very different from the barbarous and superstitious faiths which existed in the surrounding countries.

In spite of occasional lapses into idolatry and wickedness, there gradually developed among them the conception of a supreme, infinite God, who was pure, just, and holy in character, who cared for the welfare of his people, and who delighted in deeds of mercy, justice, and goodness on the part of his worshipers. An ancient Hebrew prophet asks, "And what does thy God require of thee, but to do justly, and to love kindness, and to walk humbly with thy God?" Centuries later, in answer to a lawyer who was asking him questions, Jesus uttered the same great truth in even nobler words. "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart and thy neighbor as thyself; on these two commandments hang all the law and the prophets." And so as the centuries passed by, there gradually developed the idea that religion and morality must be united,—an idea recognized everywhere today as necessary to all true religion.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why did primitive people worship nature? Why did they make little or no connection between religion and morality? Define religion; morality.
2. What is polytheism? Can you give any reason for its origin?
3. Why are the Brahmins or priests of India regarded as the highest caste? Look up the meaning of "caste" in the dictionary.
4. Find stories in Greek mythology which show what the Greeks thought their gods and goddesses were like (see Gayley, *Classic Myths*).
5. What were the religious beliefs of the North American Indians? (See Elson, *History of the United States*, pp. 29–30; Starr, *American Indians*; Longfellow, *Hiawatha*.)

SECTION II. HOW MODERN CHURCHES DEVELOPED

Governmental control of early religions. The union of people for religious purposes into organizations like our modern churches was unknown in early times and among primitive races. Among the Indians religious ceremonies were usually

THE COLOSSEUM

In this gigantic oval structure, which accommodated almost fifty thousand spectators, hundreds of the early Christians met their deaths.

under the control of the medicine man. Among the early Greeks, Romans, and Hebrews these ceremonies were in charge of priests and priestesses. Since the welfare of the tribe or nation was thought to depend on the proper worship of the gods, religion was regarded as a duty of the government in much the same way as education is regarded today in our own country.

The first Christian churches. Religious organizations, such as those with which we are familiar, developed slowly. The early Christians for various reasons were disliked and looked upon with suspicion by their pagan neighbors. They

were persecuted by the Roman government as dangerous to the peace and welfare of Rome. In order to encourage one another in their beliefs and to carry on their simple religious exercises, the Christians met in one another's homes, in caves, and even in underground burying places. Out of such meetings there grew in time the organizations that we call churches. Since most of the early Christians were Jews, it was natural that these first Christian churches should have been modeled to some extent after the Jewish synagogues as the latter existed in the time of Christ.

Divisions among Christians. As the centuries passed by, Christianity gradually spread among the people until, at last, it was accepted by the Emperor himself and was made the official religion of the Roman Empire (A.D. 325). From this time on changes gradually took place in the beliefs, ceremonies, and organization of the early Christians. In the eighth century a quarrel between the Christians in eastern Europe and those in the West resulted in the establishment in eastern Europe of the Greek Orthodox Church. About seven hundred years later (1520) differences arose within the Roman Catholic Church, as the Church in western Europe was called, and resulted in the Protestant Reformation. In this way Christians became divided into three great branches—Greek Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Protestant.

In theory the Protestant Reformation was based on the idea of religious liberty ; that is, on the right of everyone to worship God as he thought right. In practice, however, Protestants often failed to live up to their theory, and, instead of allowing each man to believe as he wished, frequently mistreated those who differed from them. But in spite of fierce persecution the right of private judgment in religious matters, put forth although not always observed by Martin Luther, John Calvin, and other early Protestant leaders, lived on ; and as a result the numerous Protestant denominations of today gradually came into existence.

Differences between Christian churches. For purposes of study, then, the various Christian churches of today can be classified in three main groups: Greek Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Protestant. Their differences, for the most part, also fall under three main heads: creed, ritual, and government. Creed deals chiefly with beliefs about God;

ritual, with the forms and ceremonies used in religious services; government, with the appointment and duties of the various officers of the Church and the management of its business. In spite of numerous variations on these points, the various Christian churches of today are separated by few dif-

ROMAN CATHOLIC CATHEDRAL IN ST. LOUIS

This is said to be the largest church edifice built in modern times. It cost \$3,000,000.

ferences of a fundamental character. In other words, their likenesses and agreements far exceed their dissimilarities and disagreements.

Jewish religious organizations. In addition to the Christian churches, there are various religious organizations of other faiths in the United States. The most numerous and influential of these are probably the Jewish organizations. There are two great bodies of Jewish worshipers—the Orthodox and the Reformed. Like the Christians they, too, differ chiefly on matters of creed, ritual, and government.

Attitude of the government toward the churches. From the standpoint of the law all churches in the United States are on an equal footing. The government treats them much

as it does any other society or organization. The only important difference it makes between religious or charitable organizations and other societies is to exempt the former from paying taxes on property and income which is used directly for religious or charitable purposes. As a result, churches are not required to pay taxes on church buildings, hospitals, or schools; they must, however, pay taxes on property which is used for business or other purposes.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Can you give any instances in American history which show how missionary zeal resulted in exploration?

2. Why did people in former times persecute those who disagreed with them in religion?

3. In what respects were churches more influential in colonial days than at present. In what respects did they have less influence? Describe the religious beliefs and services of that time. (See Alice M. Earle, *Home Life in Colonial Days*, pp. 364-387.)

4. How many churches are there in your community? How many denominations? Make a map of your community showing the location of the churches.

5. Would it not be a good thing if the government supported the churches as it does the schools? If so, why? Are there any countries in the world in which the churches are supported by public taxation?

6. The first amendment to the Constitution of the United States provides that "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof." What does this mean? Could the legislature of your state legally prevent the inhabitants from worshiping God as they thought right? (See your state constitution.)

7. Does the United States government protect American missionaries in foreign lands? If so, how?

8. What does the church do now that it did not do when your father and mother were children? Are these changes for the benefit of the community? Explain.

SECTION III. WHAT THE CHURCH DOES FOR THE COMMUNITY

What does the modern Church do? In what ways is it a benefit to the community? How does it contribute to social welfare? The answers to these questions concern everyone.

Inspiration to right living. As we noticed in the first section of this chapter, most modern religions differ from pagan faiths in many ways. The lofty character of the God of the Christian or of the Jew is in marked contrast to the depraved character of most of the heathen deities. The Christian and the Jewish faiths emphasize as essential to true religion a union between belief and conduct; pagan religions saw little connection between them—according to their principles a man might be a thief or a murderer and, at the same time, an acceptable worshiper at a religious shrine. The God of the Christian or of the Jew is a being whose pure and holy character is to be imitated by his followers in their daily lives; the gods of heathen peoples as a rule were wicked beings, who were to be feared and worshiped with hideous sacrifices and immoral rites.

Its emphasis on the necessity of living in accordance with one's religious beliefs is, therefore, the first great contribution of the modern Church. The kind of life it pictures as ideal is a constant inspiration to do right, not only to those who attend its services but to some degree to all who live in its neighborhood. It is impossible, for example, to measure the extent to which people are inspired to deeds of kindness and self-sacrifice by the story of the life of Jesus and of his love for mankind as given in stately ceremonies, in eloquent sermons, and in appealing songs.

The influence of the religious services of the Church in making good citizens, then, is immeasurable. Most of us, someone has said, are like clocks: we need to be wound up occasionally to keep true to our good intentions. Busy at play, school, or work, day after day and week after week

all through the year, our desire to help others frequently becomes dull and feeble. At such times the Church renews and strengthens our ideals; like an elevator it raises us to higher levels. More systematically, perseveringly, and effectively than any other institution, it emphasizes the higher, nobler, purer things in life. It is, in fact, the only institution which exists primarily to help us to do right and to avoid doing wrong. Its inspiration to right living is probably its greatest contribution to the community.

Educational activity. Modern educational institutions originated in the Church. In the Middle Ages only the members of the clergy could read and write. Our word "clerk" stands as a monument to this fact: it comes from the word "cleric," which means one who can read and write. In medieval times religious ceremonies consisted almost entirely in performing such sacraments of the Church as baptism, the Eucharist, and matrimony. In order to conduct the sacraments properly the priest had to be able to read Latin. Hence the necessity for education.

Accordingly, as early as the sixth century, elementary schools were conducted by parish priests and monks chiefly for the purpose of training boys for the priesthood. Naturally, those who became the higher officers in the Church, such as abbots, bishops, and archbishops, needed more advanced training. To meet this need schools grew up about the great cathedrals—schools of the bishops, they were sometimes called. From these schools many of the modern universities of Europe developed.

The interest the Church showed in education in these early times has never died out. Its original purpose, indeed, has greatly widened, for the education it now offers is no longer limited to boys who wish to become priests or ministers. Today practically all religious denominations have colleges and universities for higher education, while Catholics and Lutherans support parochial schools and in many communities also have high schools.

An important part of the educational work of the Church is done by the Sunday school. In the latter part of the eighteenth century manufacturing began to be carried on in factories. One of the results of the factory system was the employment of large numbers of children in the mills. These children worked from ten to sixteen hours a day, six days of the week, the year round. Sunday was their only holiday. For the most part they were ignorant in mind, stunted in body, dangerous in morals.

Their unfortunate condition led Robert Raikes, about 1780, to organize the first Sunday school in England. Gathering a few of the factory children together, he paid four women each a shilling a Sunday to teach the children reading and writing and morality. Since that time the Sunday school has grown greatly in extent and numbers; it is now established in every civilized land on the globe and includes in its classes over two million officers and teachers and more than twenty million pupils.

Since religion is not taught in the public schools and since it is neglected in many homes, the Sunday school is the only place where many boys and girls can learn about God and how he would like to have them live. When we remember the influence that religion has in causing us to want to do right and to shun wrong, we can easily understand why most of our criminals, especially in the case of children, come from those who have never been members of Sunday schools.

A New York judge says: "Our crime is committed almost wholly by those whom the Sunday school does not reach. Of the thousands of cases before me during the past sixteen years there has been only one actively connected with the Sunday school." After much the same experience Judge Ben Lindsey of the Children's Court in Denver, Colorado, speaks of the Sunday school as "perhaps the greatest factor in the training of children."

In many instances, especially in the large cities, the Sunday school does not limit its work to children and to our

INTERIOR OF EXETER CATHEDRAL

Built over eight hundred years ago, this cathedral is one of the noblest in England. It is notable for its long vaulted ceiling, which is over one hundred feet in height, and for the beauty and richness of its arches, pillars, and frieze work.

native adult population. Special classes in English are organized for foreigners, and many who otherwise would never enter a church are in this way brought under its influence.

The religious and educational work of the Church is not restricted to its immediate neighborhood nor, indeed, to the home country. Devoted men and women carry its message of cheer and hope to the thinly populated sections of the United States and to distant lands beyond the seas. Thus through home and foreign missions the Church inspires multitudes of people throughout the world to noble lives, while through its educational activities it prepares them for greater usefulness in their own communities.

Charitable enterprises. A third important activity of the Church is its help to those who are in distress. No call ever comes from people in want or suffering which does not get a quick response from the churches. They were active years ago in sending food and clothing to the famine-stricken millions of India and the helpless Armenians in the Turkish empire; in more recent days they have given even greater assistance to the starving people of Belgium, Poland, China, and Russia. While in late years such work has been taken over largely by the Red Cross, that organization has always found a hearty ally in the Church. Since people generally believe that the Church is moved only by the highest and most unselfish motives, they have always been ready to give a generous response to its appeals to enable it to carry on its work of relief among the poor and suffering.

Social activities. Changes in church architecture have usually marked the changing character of the work of the Church. In the Middle Ages great efforts were made to appeal not only to the minds and hearts of men but also to their eyes by the erection of magnificent Gothic cathedrals. As auditoriums in which to deliver sermons they were unsatisfactory, but, dimly lighted through the gorgeous stained-glass windows, they were ideal places in which to celebrate the stately ceremonies of the medieval Church.



The Protestant Reformation, with its emphasis on the right of everyone to form his own opinion on religious questions, naturally made its chief appeal to the reason of man and little to his emotions. In consequence a new type of church architecture developed. In this a simple, plain hall in which nothing in the way of decoration could take away the thoughts of the people from the sermon was the chief feature of the building. The New England meeting-house, it has been said, was "as perfect an expression of the religious life which worshiped within as was the cathedral of the Middle Ages."¹

A NEW ENGLAND MEETINGHOUSE

Recently the institutional church, as it has been called, has led to a third

Notice the plain glass windows and the absence of all decorative features except the belfry and the porch.

striking change in church architecture. This change has been made necessary by the many religious, educational, social, and charitable activities of such an organization. In an institutional church the auditorium continues to occupy an important part of the building; but in addition there are rooms for classes, shops, kitchens, parlors, clubs, libraries, and societies, and provision is also frequently made for a gymnasium, a swimming-pool, and a bowling alley. Instead of being closed six days of the week, an institutional church is open the year round, day and night. In this way it helps to solve one of the most serious problems of the community—the problem of the home; it is, in a sense, a community home.

¹ Josiah Strong, *Religious Movements for Social Betterment*, p. 9.

It finds that the people living around it have in their homes no opportunity to take a bath; it therefore furnishes bathing facilities. It sees that the people have little or no healthful social life; it accordingly opens attractive social rooms and organizes clubs for women, boys, and girls. The people know little of legitimate amusement; the church therefore provides it. They are

A PLAYROOM IN A CHURCH

Playrooms where children may be left while their mothers are at work are provided in many churches, especially in the crowded districts of the cities.

ignorant of household economy; the church establishes its cooking-schools, its sewing classes, and the like. In their homes the people have few books and papers; in the church they find a free reading-room and library. The homes afford no opportunity for intellectual cultivation; the church opens evening schools and provides lecture courses.¹

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why are most people who are not members of churches unwilling to live in a community which has no churches? Why are they willing to give money to help support churches? Why are they often willing to help in church enterprises and activities?

¹ Josiah Strong, *Religious Movements for Social Betterment*, p. 9. Published by Doubleday, Page & Company.

2. Some magnificent churches and cathedrals cost millions of dollars. Would it be better to erect less expensive buildings and use the money so saved for poor-relief or missionary activity?

3. What does your church do to better the community?

4. Are there any hospitals or asylums in your community which are supported by the churches?

5. Name some ways in which religion has promoted education; art; architecture; literature. Name several great works of art, music, and literature which have a religious theme.

SECTION IV. RELIGIOUS PROBLEMS AND TENDENCIES

Denominational divisions. Unfortunately the usefulness of the churches has been lessened by the numerous divisions among them. Although, as stated above, the similarities in the various Christian denominations are far more important than their differences, they engage at times in petty quarrels, which not only interfere with their work but give religion itself a bad name.

Especially is this true in many rural communities and villages. Here a half-dozen feeble, uninfluential churches often struggle for existence in a community which is barely able to support a single church. In one such community there were "sixteen country meetinghouses within a radius of three miles"; in another, 52 churches could be counted from a single belfry. In a recent investigation it was found that out of 6000 rural churches in Ohio 4000 had fewer than 100 members; and 2000 of these had fewer than 50 members. Now small congregations usually find it a burden to support a minister. Fewer than 1000 of the rural churches in Ohio were able to employ a minister for full time, while 700 had no regular pastor at all. Under such conditions it is impossible, of course, for a church to serve a community as it should.

The down-town church. In the cities there has been at times a tendency for churches to desert neighborhoods where they are most needed.

Where two hundred thousand immigrants move into an urban district half a score of churches move out. . . . Miles of city streets in the quarters inhabited by laborers are innocent of a Protestant church, while in the aristocratic districts churches face each other across the same thoroughfare.¹

CONGESTION OF CHURCHES

Within three blocks on this street in Milwaukee stand four churches.

In such instances the services which the Church alone can give are largely neglected and the community suffers.

Fortunately these two evils seem to be diminishing. The institutional church is helping to solve the problem of "the down-town district," and during recent years movements toward church unity have lessened denominational rivalry. Community churches, resulting from the union of several

¹E. C. Hayes, *Introduction to the Study of Sociology*, p. 689. Published by D. Appleton and Company.

denominations, are common in all large cities and have begun to appear in rural neighborhoods. At the same time religious denominations of the same general type have also drawn closer together. Various divisions of the Methodists are considering union, different branches of Presbyterians have

Y. M. C. A. GYMNASIUM

Especially attractive to city boys is the opportunity for athletics provided by the Y. M. C. A.

come together, and the Baptists have taken long strides toward closing their ranks. United efforts in evangelistic campaigns, good-citizenship movements, and missionary enterprises are more and more common among Protestant churches. The Federal Council of Churches has also played an important part in extending and unifying religious work.

Religious organizations. The tendency toward united action in religion has shown itself also in the hearty support given to such organizations as the Young Men's Christian

Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Young Men's Hebrew Association, the Salvation Army, and the Knights of Columbus. In considering what the Church does for the community it should not be forgotten that organizations like these are only its offshoots, composed largely of its members and supported enthusiastically by its officers. The many kinds of services of these organizations—educational, religious, and inspirational—are in a large sense but additional evidences of the influence of the Church.

Summary. In a modern community there are but two kinds of organizations—voluntary and compulsory. The family, the school, and the state are examples of compulsory organizations; we are members of them, at least for a part of our lives, whether we want to be or not. On the other hand, such organizations as clubs, fraternal orders, and churches are voluntary; we belong to them or not as we please. It is only because they help us in times of trouble, or give us an opportunity to help others, or enable us to do what we could not do so well by ourselves that we join voluntary organizations. Of all voluntary organizations the Church is the one which, in the opinion of thoughtful people, does the most for the community and at the same time serves as the most effective means of social control. This judgment is based on what the Church does for society in inspiration, education, and benevolence.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. John Bunyan said, "Religion is the best armor in the world, but the worst cloak." What did he mean? Who was John Bunyan?

2. What is the value of the church property in your community? Can you find the amount of income of the churches in your vicinity? From what sources is their income derived? What do they do with it?

3. Does the presence of churches in a neighborhood have any effect on the value of real estate? Explain. What is "real estate"?

4. Would it be a good thing if all the denominations would unite? Why? What do you think is the chief thing which keeps them apart?

5. In what respects, if any, could the work of the churches in your community be improved?

6. What is the Federal Council of Churches and what does it do? What has it accomplished?

7. Compare the services to the community rendered by the Church with those rendered by the school.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that all the Protestant churches in our community should be united.

Resolved, that all church property should be subject to taxation.

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A Visit to an Institutional Church

What My Church Believes

The Passion Play

Go-to-Church Sunday

Our Sunday School

The Work of the Salvation Army

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CHAPTER V

THE COMMUNITY

A great city is that which has the greatest men and women.
If it be a few ragged huts it is still the greatest city in the whole world.

WALT WHITMAN

SECTION I. THE PRIMITIVE COMMUNITY

Review and preview. As we journey through life we become at various times members of different groups of people. First, we enter the family ; next, the school ; then we usually become connected with the Church. Of course all through our lives we belong to that still larger group we call the community. In this book, so far, we have studied the family, the school, and the Church. We have gained some idea of the important work of these groups and of the problems which each faces. Let us now turn our attention to the community.

There have been many kinds of communities since the beginning of time. Life in these communities has differed widely in some respects, but it has been very similar in other respects. We shall understand the world we live in better, therefore, if we know something about the life of other peoples and of other times. Let us then examine, first, the community life of primitive man, and, second, that of a frontier settlement in the early history of our own country. We shall then be prepared to study how a modern community developed and how some of its most important problems originated.

The clan and the tribe. The earliest type of community, as the word is ordinarily used, was the clan. The clan was merely a large family. It was composed usually of persons who were related by blood, and it generally included not

only the sons and daughters of the head of the clan but the wives of his sons and grandsons as well as their children. The patriarch Jacob, his sons, their wives and children, form a good illustration of such a community. When a number of clans united they formed a tribe; the words "clan" and

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A PRIMITIVE JAPANESE VILLAGE

Each family in this Japanese village has a small section of the house devoted to a nursery for the raising of silkworms. Contact with the outside world is indicated by the telegraph poles at the right.

"tribe," however, are frequently used interchangeably, and the distinction between them is of no great importance for our present study.

Teamwork in primitive tribes. Dangers from wild beasts and savage foes compelled the members of these clans or tribes to hang together. Their united efforts were necessary to defend themselves from lions and tigers, to kill deer or buffaloes, and to win victory when at war with other tribes. All the men of the tribe, therefore, joined in hunting-expeditions to provide food for the tribe, and all took part

in warfare to protect it from its enemies. The women, likewise, all helped in the rude farming; they wove garments and baskets and mats; they looked after the children, prepared the food, and performed other labor which the welfare of the tribe demanded. As a rule, food, clothing, and tools could be used by everyone. Whatever conditions existed,—luxury or hardship, plenty or famine,—the members of the tribe usually shared alike. Only by such coöperation were they able to exist.

They would not understand how anyone could suffer for food, clothing, and shelter when others in the same community were living in abundance. "When Turner told a Samoan about the poor in London, the latter exclaimed: 'How is it? No food! No friends! No house to live in! Where *did* he grow? Are there no houses belonging to his friends?'"

Control by the tribe. It is natural that where such privileges were permitted, the clan or tribe should have exercised very strict control over its members. Only by such control could the welfare of the group be safeguarded. If each member was allowed to do just as he pleased with tribal property, the safety and existence of all the members were threatened; if one individual neglected the sacrifices to the gods, divine anger was likely to punish the entire tribe. Hence we find that in all the details of life—even the smallest—the members lived under strict tribal rules and followed the same peculiar customs.

Illustrations of tribal control. All members of some tribes, for example, tattooed themselves in rows or rings; all members of others used semicircles or squares; while still others employed figures of birds and animals. In South Australia, girls voluntarily submitted to the pain of having rows of long, deep gashes cut across their backs with a sharp, jagged shell. Such was the tribal custom, and no self-respecting young woman would willingly go without such a mark of beauty as a well-carved back. Whatever form of decoration was adopted

by the tribe was followed by all, although certain variations were allowed to indicate the chief or the medicine man.

Among the Tuareg tribe in the Sahara the men constantly veil the lower part of their faces. In New Guinea, after they

KIKUYU CHIEFTAINS

The earrings, necklaces, anklets, and styles of headdress worn by these African chieftains satisfy their love of adornment and in some instances indicate in addition their rank or position in the tribe. See also the Kandian chieftains on page 23.

have eaten, negroes take the utmost pains to hide or destroy all remains of their food lest evil come upon them through charms or enchantments worked upon the fragments by an enemy. When a Creek Indian boy was initiated into the secrets of his tribe he was not allowed for one year to scratch his head with his fingers (he might, however, use a small stick for the purpose); during the year he was forbidden to

touch anyone but boys who like himself were being initiated. In some tribes brothers were not allowed to speak to sisters, or husbands to wives. By many tribes the first cutting of a child's hair is observed as a sacred ceremony; with others the trimming of the nails is regarded as a solemn rite. The natives of Libya would eat oxen but not cows. Fishing expeditions in the Caroline Islands were always begun in silence. At a council of war or a religious ceremony among the ancient Romans no man was permitted to cross his legs or clasp his hands, because it was believed that such an act would bring defeat. It is impossible to explain in all cases why the members of the tribe were required or forbidden to do certain things, but in every case the idea which lay back of the rule was the same—the safety of the community.

Punishment of violators of tribal taboos. The person who broke a tribal requirement suffered most severely for his sin, for a primitive community knew how to enforce its laws. If the offender did not die from fear at having broken a taboo, as such a tribal requirement was called, he disappeared sooner or later in a mysterious way known only to the rulers of the tribe and to those who were appointed to carry out its vengeance. The very mystery of his fate added to the awe and terror inspired by the taboos.

Summary. In the community life of the primitive tribe there was little division of labor in occupation: all the men, except the medicine man or wonder-worker, engaged in hunting, fishing, and fighting, and all the women took part in the rude farming and mechanical arts. With some exceptions, there was also no trading of goods or exchange of courtesies with other tribes; in fact, there were as a rule few friendly dealings of any kind with other tribes or peoples. This attitude of primitive peoples toward one another explains the origin of the word "clannish." In the third place, since no one was allowed to do anything which was contrary to the traditions of the tribe, progress was almost impossible.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Find out all you can about the community life of one of the following racial groups: Eskimos, North American Indians, South Sea Islanders, Australian tribes, Negro tribes of central Africa, Arabians, Hindus. (See reading-list; also consult the back numbers of the *National Geographic Magazine*.)

2. In what ways does life in your community resemble life in a primitive community? In what ways is it better? In what ways is it worse?

3. What tribal rules and customs mentioned in this section can you find the reason for?

4. Find out what were the chief amusements of any primitive tribe in which you are interested, such as the Eskimos, Indians, negroes in central Africa, or islanders in the South Pacific. Were these amusements simply for fun or were they entered into for other reasons?

5. What was the best feature of community life among primitive peoples? What was its worst feature? Give reasons for your answer in each case.

SECTION II. AN AMERICAN FRONTIER COMMUNITY

The beginnings of Boonesborough. In the autumn of 1775 there might have been seen traveling along the rough Wilderness Trail a small company of people slowly and cautiously making their way to the West. At the head of the little band walked a tall, lithe, well-knit man clad in deerskin, leather leggings, moccasins, and coonskin cap. Around his waist was a leather belt from which a tomahawk and a hunting-knife were suspended. From his shoulders hung a powderhorn and a bullet-pouch. In his hand he carried a long flintlock rifle. A number of packhorses laden with bedding, clothing, and a few rude utensils followed him. Twenty young men and boys, a woman, two girls, and some small children completed the company. Daniel Boone, his family, and a few friends were on their way to the blue-grass region of Kentucky.

Years before, when but a stripling, this bold and skillful backwoodsman had joined the ill-starred Braddock expedition and had learned from a comrade of the teeming game, the noble forests, the beautiful prairies, and the rich soil of Kentucky. In the years that followed he had gone several times to the region on hunting-expeditions. In the spring of 1775 a company of men led by him had crossed the mountains and had built a rude stockade at a place called in his honor Boonesborough. Leaving the men in charge of the fort, Boone had then returned to his Carolina home. Now, six months later, with his family and a few friends, he was again westward bound, this time to establish the first home in the new settlement.

Advantages and drawbacks of the site. Boonesborough was located on the south bank of the Kentucky River. Buffalo, elk, deer, and wild turkeys, as well as wildcats, wolves, and bears, abounded in the vicinity. At no great distance were licks, where salt could be obtained—a commodity vital for the new community and difficult to bring from the far-distant Eastern settlements. Timber existed in abundance, the soil was of unsurpassed fertility, and springs of water and running streams were plentiful. In natural resources the neighborhood was a paradise for pioneers.

But there was one great drawback. The large numbers of game animals and wild fowl made the region the favorite hunting-ground of the Indians for many miles around; naturally they were ill-disposed to see the white man occupy the land and destroy or drive away the game. On his various hunting-trips Boone had had a number of thrilling encounters with them, and he well understood the dangers which the new settlement faced. Events which were to follow long gave Kentucky the name of "the dark and bloody ground."

Growth of Boonesborough. The temptation of the superb hunting had at first proved too strong for the men who had crossed the mountains with Boone in the spring of 1775, but by constant effort he had finally persuaded them to put

up a rude fort. In addition, some of the men had built cabins; most of them had staked off land claims; and before Boone's family arrived they had planted several hundred acres in corn, set out some fruit trees, and introduced a few hogs, cows, and horses. Now, with the arrival of Mrs. Boone and her children, Boonesborough may be regarded as established. Not long afterward other immigrants

BOONESBOROUGH IN 1778

Boonesborough was the first permanent settlement in Kentucky. The walls of the fort were composed of the back walls of the cabins, which were joined to one another by the stockade. The doors and windows of the cabins all faced the interior of the inclosure. Note the overhanging story of the blockhouses at each corner. Describe the first permanent settlement in your state.

with their families appeared, the number of "clearings" increased, and as the months passed by population slowly but steadily multiplied. Let us now examine some of the features of the little settlement.

The fort and the Indians. In frontier communities the men all helped in the building of the fort. On the outlying "clearings" cabins would then be constructed to serve as homes for the settlers. When there was danger from the Indians the inhabitants of the community with their live stock (if time permitted) took refuge within the stockade.

The stockade contained about thirty one-story cabins facing inwards and arranged in the form of a quadrangle. It was about one hundred and twenty-five feet wide and two hundred and fifty feet long. The backs of the cabins were connected by a palisade approximately ten feet high composed of double rows of sharp-pointed saplings placed endwise in the ground. At each of the four corners of the stockade a two-story blockhouse was built in such manner that the second story extended beyond the first. Loopholes in the floor and walls of the second story enabled the defenders to fire from above upon an enemy who might try to force his way into the fort. The cabins and palisades were also plentifully supplied with loopholes.

Such a structure furnished admirable defense: it could easily be protected by a small number of inmates, and usually it could be captured only by surprise or by a large force employing fire or cannon. All trees, stumps, and bushes which might serve as cover for an attacking party were carefully cleared away from the immediate vicinity of the fort. The need of the stockade as a place of refuge was frequent along the frontier. Speaking of this need, a frontiersman said:

I well remember that when a little boy the family were sometimes waked up in the dead of night by an express with a report that the Indians were at hand. The express came softly to the door or back window, and by gently tapping waked the family; this was easily done, as an habitual fear made us ever watchful and sensible to the slightest alarm. The whole family were instantly in motion; my father seized his gun and other implements of war; my stepmother waked up and dressed the children as well as she could; and being myself the oldest of the children, I had to take my share of the burthens to be carried to the fort. There was no possibility of getting a horse in the night to aid us in removing to the fort; besides the little children, we caught up what articles of clothing and provisions we could get hold of in the dark, for we durst not light a candle or even stir the fire. All this was done with the utmost dispatch

and the silence of death; the greatest care was taken not to awaken the youngest child; to the rest it was enough to say "Indian," and not a whimper was heard afterwards. Thus it often happened that the whole number of families belonging to a fort, who were in the evening at their homes, were all in their little fortress before the dawn of the next morning. In the course of the succeeding day their household furniture was brought in by parties of the men under arms.¹

Frontier farms. Life in a frontier community was very simple. Each family had for its home a rough cabin built of logs, the cracks daubed with mud. This cabin consisted usually of a single room, with dirt floor and a large open fireplace. If all went well the one-room cabin was replaced in a few years by a larger structure, with wooden floor and sometimes as many as three rooms and an attic. When such a building was erected the neighbors for miles around came to assist in "the raisin'." What little furniture there was—a few three-legged stools for chairs, some rough wooden frames for beds, a board on trestles for a table—was the handiwork of the father or the older boys. Dishes were frequently made of wood; forks, spoons, and cups, of iron or pewter.

Land for the most part was planted in corn. A vegetable garden containing cabbage, beans, cucumbers, and similar "truck" and cared for by the women was made near the cabin. Some pigs, sheep, and cattle were raised, though the family depended for much of its meat on the deer, buffalo, wild turkeys, and squirrels which abounded in the neighboring prairies and forests. The mother and girls hammered or ground the corn into coarse flour and hominy. Salt was obtained from the neighboring salt licks. The skins of deer and elk served admirably for moccasins and wearing-apparel; wool and even the hair of the buffalo were used for the making of coarse homespun cloth.

Frontier trade. The people who lived in settlements like Boonesborough were so far from the Eastern communities

¹ C. H. A. Forbes-Lindsay, *Daniel Boone, Backwoodsman*, pp. 70f.

that they were compelled to make most of the articles they needed. The men were not only hunters, Indian fighters, and farmers; they were also weavers, carpenters, surveyors, smiths, tanners, Jacks-of-all-trades. Most of their crude farming implements, their tools, and their long flintlock rifles were the work of their own hands.

Daniel Boone even learned how to make gunpowder.

There were, however, a few articles for which pioneers usually had to depend on the older settlements. The chief of these were iron, lead, gunpowder, and pepper. In the fall the furs, skins, and ginseng in the community were gathered together and loaded upon packhorses, and a few of the settlers then took the long,

tedious, and sometimes dangerous journey of hundreds of miles over the mountains to the seacoast towns in the East. Occasionally flatboats loaded with furs, whisky, and bacon were taken down the river to New Orleans by the backwoodsmen. In the East or the South, as the case might be, they exchanged their goods for the articles which they needed but which they found so difficult to make or secure on the frontier.

BIRTHPLACE OF LINCOLN

This one-room log cabin, in which Abraham Lincoln was born, is a good example of an early pioneer home. The cabins erected by the first settlers, however, were usually of unhewn logs and had no glass windows. Lincoln's birthplace was torn down many years ago but, fortunately, the logs were saved; in 1895 the cabin was rebuilt out of these logs upon the original site. It is now protected from the weather by a beautiful marble building which was erected over it a few years ago.

Law and order. Among the people who settled Boonesborough and its vicinity there were, naturally, some disorderly and lawless souls. By rude but effective methods these persons were given swift justice and, in case of serious offenses, severe treatment. But there was little tendency to interfere in quarrels between man and man. The frontier is filled with stories of the brutal rough-and-tumble fights ("half-alligator, half-horse" fights, they were sometimes called) by which personal differences were settled.

Instances of laziness and failure to provide for family needs were uncommon among backwoodsmen. There were no rich settlers and few poor ones. While life was hard and the comforts with which we are familiar were unknown, there was usually enough for everyone to eat and wear.

Development of community life in Boonesborough. Not long after Boonesborough was founded, a store was opened in a small log cabin where gunpowder, lead, spices, and other goods could be purchased. It was but a short time until a gristmill was also built. Growing traffic soon made it necessary to establish a ferry across the Kentucky River. At first the religious needs of the little community were met only by ministers who happened to be traveling from one settlement to another, preaching the gospel, baptizing children and adults, marrying the young people, and burying the dead; but before many years a little church was built and a minister settled in the village. In response to the demands of the pioneers a young immigrant from Virginia soon opened a school in the settlement.

Within a few years after Boonesborough was founded it was united with various other settlements in Kentucky under one government. Laws were then passed for the punishment of criminals, the preservation of game, the improvement of horses, the regulation of the militia, and the prevention of profanity and Sabbath-breaking. Thus, as the community grew, the needs of its people led to the gradual development of commerce, religion, education, and government.

Frontier life compared with tribal life. When we compare life in a frontier community like Boonesborough with that of the primitive tribe, what striking likenesses and important differences appear? In the first place, danger from savage foes caused the members of both communities to draw close together for protection. In the second place, although the members of both communities were willing to share food, clothing, and shelter with one another in case of need, the practice was by no means so widely followed along the frontier as in the tribe. Members of a frontier settlement were generally expected to provide for their own needs. In the third place, the tribe had few friendly dealings with other tribes; a frontier community, on the other hand, depended on distant communities with which it came into more or less constant contact for articles which it needed but which it did not produce. In addition, a frontier settlement, in spite of the rude merriment of some of its inhabitants at the expense of a tenderfoot now and then, welcomed and entertained strangers and heartily encouraged immigration. Interest was also keen in the affairs of other communities and in news from the outside world. In the last place, while clannishness and prejudice appeared at times in Western settlements, there were few signs of that group mastership which was so universal in the clan. On the contrary, the most striking feature of frontier life, outside of the obligation which rested on every settler to join in the common defense, was individual freedom.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Find out what you can about the early history of your own community. Compare it with that of Boonesborough.
2. Prepare a talk on the settlement of one of the following places: Marietta, Ohio; Salt Lake City, Utah; Astoria, Washington; St. Augustine, Florida; Vincennes, Indiana; Green Bay, Wisconsin; Topeka, Kansas; San Francisco, California. Compare with the history of Boonesborough and your own community.

3. Compare a rural community with which you are familiar with Boonesborough in (1) industry, (2) trade, (3) amusements, (4) religious and educational opportunities.

4. What was the best feature of community life in Boonesborough? What was its worst feature? Explain.

SECTION III. THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MODERN CITY COMMUNITY

Decline of Boonesborough. If you try to locate Boonesborough on a modern map of Kentucky you will have difficulty in finding it, for the little frontier settlement has practically disappeared. Attracted by more fertile lands to the north and west, many of the original inhabitants, including Boone, migrated; greater opportunities in business in neighboring communities caused others to leave; and malarial fever brought on by the neighboring swamps drove still others away.

The chief cause for the decline of Boonesborough, however, was its unfavorable location for commerce and manufacturing. Situated in a region which swarmed with game and which possessed rich soil, the site was ideal for a frontier community, but it proved, as population in the West multiplied, to be an out-of-the-way place for business. Since it was located on no important stream or body of water and was also remote from the routes prepared by nature for canals and railroads, neither Western products nor Eastern merchandise needed to pass through its borders on their way to or from the markets of the outside world. As a result of these disadvantages the little settlement, after a period of growth, grew smaller and smaller until, today, it is little more than a memory.

Causes for great cities. With few exceptions, in fact, only those settlements situated where there is a "break in transportation" become important cities. Wherever goods in transit must be changed from land routes to water routes or

from water routes to land routes, labor is required to load and unload them, warehouses must be provided to store them, and quantities of supplies must be furnished to meet the wants of the workers. These different activities necessitate the living of many people within a small area, and, in consequence, a city develops.

If the region to which the city serves as an outlet or inlet is rich in fertile lands, mineral resources, and timber, and is inhabited by a capable, industrious people, the quantity of goods shipped out and in is greatly increased and the importance of the city is magnified accordingly. If the hinterland, as such a region is called, possesses large stores of iron, coal, and timber, the community is likely to become a center of manufacturing as well as of commerce and to develop into a great metropolis.

Pittsburgh, for example, became an important commercial and manufacturing center because it is situated at the forks of the Ohio, where land and water routes meet, and because, in addition, it is in the center of one of the richest coal and iron regions in the world. St. Louis became a great city as a result of its favorable location on the Mississippi, where land and water routes cross and where, at the same time, the city is in the midst of a magnificent agricultural district many of whose products it markets and whose needs it supplies. In like manner San Francisco and Seattle in the West, New Orleans in the South, and New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore in the East attained their present size because their sites mark the meeting-place of important land and water routes and also serve as convenient centers for the manufacture of the raw materials which are so abundant in their hinterlands.

Advantages of the site of Chicago. Chicago is a good illustration of the way in which great cities develop. Those who have heard the roar and rumble of "the Loop"—the business center of Chicago—find it hard to realize that where the fourth largest city in the world now stands, there were,

AGRICULTURAL AND MINERAL PRODUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES

This map shows the chief agricultural and mineral products of the United States. What important commodities not indicated here are produced in the section of the country in which you live ?

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INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL CENTERS OF THE UNITED STATES

The navigable parts of rivers, the chief railway lines, and the most important cities are shown on this map. By comparison with the map on the opposite page can you explain the chief underlying causes for the growth of our main industrial and commercial centers?

less than a hundred years ago, only a rude fort, a small trading post, and a few log cabins along the banks of the river.

The importance of the site had long been recognized. When the French (the earliest whites to explore the Northwest) first crossed the low, narrow strip of land which

SAN FRANCISCO

San Francisco owes much of its importance to its magnificent harbor, seen in the background. This harbor, it is said, is large enough to accommodate all the navies of the world at one time.

separates the north branch of the Chicago River from the upper waters of the Desplaines River—the portage, as it was called—they were quick to note its advantages. La Salle, one of the first of these early visitors, is reported to have said:

This is the lowest point on the divide between the two great valleys of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. The boundless regions of the West must send their products to the East through

this point. This will be the gate of empire, this the seat of commerce. Everything invites to action. The typical man who will grow up here must be an enterprising man. Each day as he rises he will exclaim, "I act, I move, I push," and there will be spread before him a boundless horizon, an illimitable field of activity.

THE LOOP DISTRICT OF CHICAGO

This is the heart of the business district of Chicago. It gets its name from the circuit, or loop, made around it by the elevated trains from all parts of the city. Where now its rumble and roar are heard both night and day there was, less than one hundred years ago, only the silence of the prairie.

A limitless expanse of plain is here—to the east, water and at all other points, land. If I were to give this place a name I would derive it from the nature of the place and the nature of the man who will occupy this place—*ago*, "I act"; *circum*, "all around": "Circago."

Owing to the position of Lake Michigan all travel by land from the Northwest to the East or in the opposite direction was forced to cross the site of Chicago. The portage

also made the spot a convenient one for travel by water from the Southwest to the Northeast or from the Northeast to the Southwest, for all that was necessary, to take advantage of the Mississippi or the Lake, was to carry one's goods the short distance which separated one body of water from the other, and a natural highway was at one's disposal. Moreover, the meeting of land and water routes at this point, the "break," made the site of commercial importance. In addition, the presence of rich iron deposits in Michigan and of extensive coal fields in Illinois and Indiana made the spot advantageous for the development of manufacturing.

Beginnings of the growth of Chicago. The indifference of the French to agriculture, their keen interest in the fur trade, the presence of unfriendly Indians, and the abundance of fertile lands elsewhere long delayed the growth of the little Western settlement. As late as 1832 there were but one hundred and fifty people living in the village. But with the defeat of the Indians that year and their removal to lands west of the Mississippi the growth of Chicago began. Soldiers who had fought Black Hawk spread far and wide the news of the beautiful, fertile farm lands in northern Illinois and southern Wisconsin. From the East there came in steadily increasing numbers settlers to develop "the new Eden."

In the meantime Congress voted \$25,000 to improve the Chicago harbor. Encouraged by this success the folk of the village became more and more excited as they talked of the day when a ship canal would be dug which would unite the waters of Lake Michigan with those of the Mississippi. In their enthusiasm they could already see great fleets of ocean-going vessels sailing from New York, through Chicago, down the "Father of Waters" to New Orleans. During the summer of 1833 no less than one hundred and fifty new shanties went up on the banks of the Chicago River, and when the first large vessel sailed into the new harbor the following spring the future of Chicago was assured. In six months

the population of the village increased to almost six hundred. Several dry-goods stores, drug stores, a hardware store, a number of blacksmith shops, a harness shop, a shoe store, a tavern, and a frame church were erected. In a short time a weekly newspaper began publication. By 1836 several additional churches, a two-story frame tavern, a mill, and even a log jail were built. That year the population reached four thousand.

The first land boom and the panic. This rapid growth in population naturally caused high confidence in the future of Chicago, and as the inhabitants multiplied, the value of town lots rose rapidly. In 1830 the choicest lot in the village had sold for \$200 and many lots had sold for \$1.25 each. Now lots which had been laid out on paper four years before began to sell at unheard-of prices. In 1829, it is said, a lot was secured in a lottery for 25 cents; in 1832 it sold for a pair of boots valued at \$5; in 1833 it brought its owner a barrel of whisky worth \$25; and the next year, having been offered unsuccessfully for \$50, it was finally traded for a yoke of oxen and a barrel of flour. But in 1835 its possessor parted with it for \$500 cash, and almost before he had stopped chuckling over his profit the new owner sold it in 1836 for \$5000. According to another story this lot was purchased for a bottle of whisky and a blanket and was sold later by the buyer for \$60,000. Harriet Martineau, a celebrated writer and traveler who visited Chicago in these days of excitement, vividly pictures the scene:

I never saw a busier place. It was but a squalid town of insignificant houses that sat jauntily in the muck of the prairie, but the streets were as crowded as those of London. Land sales were held on every block, and everybody hurried from one to another, fearing to miss the bargains. A negro dressed in scarlet, bearing a red flag and riding a white horse with scarlet housings, dashed through the town and announced the time of sale. Crowds flocked around him. The gentlemen of our party were hailed from the shop doors with offers of farms, land lots, town sites, timber claims.

The immediate occasion of excitement was the sale of \$2,000,000 worth of lots along the projected canal. Wild land along that undug ditch was selling for more than the finest land in the valley of the Mohawk, where an inestimable amount of traffic was then being carried on. These speculators in Chicago were not sharpers or gamblers, but hard-headed business men. It was remarkable to find such an assemblage of cultivated, refined, and wealthy people living in the rudest houses on the edge of that wild prairie.

When work on the canal was begun in 1836 the little city celebrated the event with the firing of cannon, the waving of flags, and the making of speeches. But the panic of 1837, which affected the whole country disastrously, put a stop to the work; both public and private business languished; "hard times" and suffering came. The check, however, was soon over, and in the early forties population again began to grow. In 1845 work on the canal was renewed with vigor, and three years later, after great difficulties had been overcome, the project was completed.

Effect of the canal and the railroad. One week after the canal was opened to traffic a vessel with a cargo of sugar passed through the city on its way from New Orleans to Buffalo. It arrived at its destination two weeks earlier than a ship which had left New Orleans at the same time and had followed the usual route by way of New York and the Erie Canal. Improvements in waterways to the East were now pushed so rapidly that in 1856 a vessel was able to sail from Chicago to Europe. The dream of twenty-five years before had become a reality.

Meantime railway construction had also begun. In spite of ridicule from wags of the town, skepticism from the financiers, and a storm of opposition from the stagecoach and canal interests, farseeing men undertook the building of a railroad west from Chicago. So rapidly was the work carried on that the same year which saw the opening of the canal witnessed the completion of the first railroad to the city which was destined to become the largest railway center

in the world. Within a decade Chicago became the most important commercial and manufacturing center in the West.

The causes for the growth of the city should be clear. Much of the farm produce sent East had to be unloaded from trains

© Ewing Galloway

MICHIGAN BOULEVARD AND GRANT PARK, CHICAGO

This wide boulevard, fronted by Grant Park (the city's down-town playground) and by the tracks of the Illinois Central Railway, was in early days a noted residential street. Today it is famous for its hotels, office buildings, smart shops, and automobile salesrooms. A closer view of this famous avenue is shown on page 202. To the right, but not visible in the picture, is Lake Michigan.

or canal boats at Chicago and reloaded on lake vessels; quantities of goods from Eastern factories bound for the West by way of the Lake had to be transferred at Chicago from ships to trains and canal boats. Warehouses were needed, therefore, as places for storage, and laborers were in demand to

do the work. Mercantile firms, both wholesale and retail, were organized to buy from and sell to farmers, cattlemen, and shippers. Since certain articles could be manufactured at Chicago more cheaply than at more remote places, owing to the abundance of raw materials and the saving in transportation charges, factories began to spring up. Thus, because of opportunities in railroading, shipping, manufacturing, and mercantile pursuits, the city grew.

The great fire. In 1870, for the fourth time within a generation, the city limits were extended. Twenty-seven bridges now spanned the river. So rapidly did Chicago grow that the inhabitants had little time or inclination to erect substantial buildings; of its 60,000 structures 40,000 were frame and many were composed wholly or in part of pine; tar and felt roofs were common. Such were conditions when the great fire of 1871 swept over and destroyed a large part of the city. Undiscouraged by the disaster the citizens began to clear away the rubbish and rebuild their homes almost before the embers ceased glowing, and as a result the rapid growth of the city continued undiminished.

Recent progress of Chicago. With the ever-increasing acreage of rich farm lands at its back door, with Lake Michigan and its cheap transportation of fuel, iron ore, and lumber at its front door, with a rapid increase in railroads and a steady multiplication of industries, the advantages of the site of Chicago have appeared more and more clearly with the passing of time. Ten years after the fire the population of the city exceeded half a million; in 1890 it passed the million mark; ten years later it numbered over 1,600,000; 1910 saw it well over 2,000,000; and the census of 1920 placed it at almost 3,000,000. The second largest city in the United States and the fourth largest in the world had reached its rank in less than a century as a result of its remarkable facilities for commerce and manufactures. These facilities were due to its favorable situation in the midst of a hinterland unsurpassed for the richness of its natural resources.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Define portage ; hinterland ; panic ; division of labor ; "hard times." How did each of these play a part in the growth of Chicago? Did any of them influence the growth of the largest city in your part of the country? Explain.

2. Make an outline of the different things which have made Chicago a great city. Which was the most important? What are the factors which have led to the growth of your own community? Which is of greatest importance? Why?

3. What were the specific causes for the growth of New York? Cleveland? Philadelphia? St. Louis? New Orleans? Los Angeles? Washington? Detroit? Denver? San Francisco? Minneapolis? Milwaukee? Baltimore? (Look up one of these cities, or another in which you are interested, in the encyclopedia or in the reference books in the reading-list.)

4. What factors have made New York the largest city in America?

5. In 1860 Cincinnati was the largest city in the Middle West, St. Louis, the second; Chicago, the third. Since 1870 Chicago has been the leader. Can you explain this change in rank?

6. Can you name other communities that have declined like Boonesborough? If so, what were the causes of their decline?

7. Is the population of your own community growing or declining? What are the causes of the change? Is it always desirable that the population of a community increase? Explain.

SECTION IV. PROBLEMS OF MODERN COMMUNITY LIFE

Social problems. Wherever people live in groups—and with rare exceptions they always live in groups—important and difficult problems arise. As we have noticed in previous chapters, there are serious problems in the family, the school, and the Church. The community, likewise, has its problems, the survey of which next calls for our attention.

While the community is very much concerned in everything that affects the groups just mentioned, and they in turn are vitally concerned in all that touches it,—in fact, the problems of one are in a sense problems of the others,

—the separate study of each group helps us to understand both the group itself and the problems it faces. What are some of the great problems of life in a modern community?

1. *Occupation.* The growth of a community is limited by the opportunities it offers its inhabitants for gaining a living. As we noticed in the last section, a large city like New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, or St. Louis can develop only because of the advantages of its location for trade, commerce, and manufacturing. Boonesborough did not have such advantages and never became very important; indeed, as we have seen, after pioneer days it practically disappeared.

If anything interferes with the opportunity for gaining a living, such as a panic, a change in trade routes, or "hard times," everyone becomes immediately aware of a problem which always exists—the problem of jobs. Unless men have work they soon have nothing with which to buy food and clothing; business then suffers, population declines, and the community languishes or dies. Occupation, in short, is vital to community existence.

This truth is strikingly illustrated in the story of Pithole City, Pennsylvania. In 1864 there were only three wooden buildings in that part of the county in which it was soon to stand. The next year oil was discovered in the vicinity, and within six weeks a city of 10,000 and shortly 15,000 inhabitants developed.

Tents and shanties rose on every hand. Soon there were large hotels, one of them four stories in height, built at a cost of \$100,000, and three others the erection of which involved an outlay of more than \$40,000. The city came in a little while to have fifty hotels and hundreds of boarding-houses and restaurants. Theaters, churches, saloons, casinos, concert halls, groceries, land offices, agencies for the sale of engines, blowers, drills, and other paraphernalia used in boring for oil, were open for business.¹

¹E. P. Oberholtzer, *A History of the United States since the Civil War*, Vol. I, pp. 257–261. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

But the decline of Pithole was almost as rapid as its growth. With the failure of the oil wells its population melted away until, in the election of 1867, only ninety-two votes were cast within its limits; the following year the entire city was destroyed by a fire. With no industries to justify its rebuilding, the site of this mushroom settlement remained a mass of ashes, and today its very memory has well-nigh disappeared. Without means of occupation for its inhabitants its existence became impossible.

2. *Health.* Large numbers of people living near one another always create serious problems of health. Many diseases spread rapidly unless people who suffer from them are kept away from their neighbors; food and milk, which of necessity are produced outside the city, need to be protected from impurities; waste and rubbish accumulate rapidly. Great care is necessary, therefore, to protect the community from contagious diseases and to provide it with pure food. Ignorance of the safeguards which should have been taken, for example, caused an epidemic of cholera in Chicago about 1850 which cost the lives of hundreds of people. The obtaining of a sufficient supply of pure water—a matter of the utmost importance to public health—is frequently a most difficult problem. Even the securing of an abundance of pure air and sunlight is not easy where there are numerous factories, freight yards, and lofty office and mercantile buildings.

3. *Transportation.* The going of people to and from their work and the carrying of foodstuffs and other articles from one part of the city to another give rise, of course, to questions of streets, bridges, street cars, and subways. In Chicago, for example, the construction of streets caused especial difficulty. Much of the city was at first built on a low, marshy plain which in most places was only from two to six feet above the level of the lake. Consequently there was very little natural drainage, and after a rain the mud would remain for days until it was dried by the wind or

sun. Since the first streets were "dirt" roads, they were never good; and at their worst, in the spring and fall, they were almost impassable. It was a common sight in these seasons of the year to see farm wagons, stagecoaches, and

 Ewing Calloway

A CONGESTED STREET

The crowded condition of the down-town streets presents one of the most difficult problems of the modern city. Traffic is seriously hindered and business delayed. Would not a fire department find it both difficult and dangerous to answer an alarm on this street?

drays abandoned in mudholes. One of the early inhabitants of Chicago says that drivers were warned of the most dangerous holes by signs like the following: "NO BOTTOM," "ROAD TO CHINA," "TEAM UNDERNEATH"

Various plans were tried to remedy the evil. Occasionally the street was covered with sand from the beach, but though

its appearance was then greatly improved, it became more treacherous than before to teamsters and wagons. Roads built of two-inch planks were next tried, but heavy loads soon broke the planks, and at every step of the team mud and water would spatter the driver and everyone within range. At last, after several other methods had been tried and found wanting, the people undertook the task of raising the level of the city to fourteen feet above the surface of the lake. It was a hard job—material for filling in the streets and alleys had to be secured; houses had to be raised; even four-story brick buildings had to be elevated. This is but an illustration of the engineering obstacles sometimes presented by the transportation problem; the control of traffic facilities is an even more difficult matter.

4. *Protection.* Among any large number of people there are, unfortunately, some who will not respect the rights of others or who are the victims of their own vices. From this criminal class the community must protect itself. Chicago found it necessary as early as 1836 to build a jail; a short time later it organized a police force. In recent years more and more people are becoming interested in improving protection by bettering the police force and by removing the causes which lead to crime. They believe that crime will be lessened by ending the slums, by providing clean and attractive forms of recreation, and by extending moral and religious education.

Fire too is a source of great danger to a community. The way buildings are constructed, the materials of which they are composed, their plumbing arrangements, are matters which concern everyone. Fire regulations and fire apparatus are also essential in order to avoid conflagrations which endanger the whole community. As early as 1834, for example, Chicago forbade the carrying of live coals through the village streets except in covered vessels. A short time afterwards the head of every household was required to own as many leathern fire buckets as there were stoves in his house and to see that the buckets were on hand whenever

there was a fire. A fire engine was next ordered from the East, and in a short time volunteer fire companies were formed. In 1845 the city purchased a fire bell to take the place of the shouts of men and boys on which the community had previously depended for the alarm. But during these early years little was done to guard the community against fire by regulating building operations, and not until after the great fire of 1871 were such laws put into effect and modern fire-fighting apparatus introduced.

5. *Recreation and education.* The natural desire of people for amusement results at times in forms of recreation which not only injure those who take part in them but are dangerous also to the entire community. Hence the community must provide safeguards against injurious amusements and furnish opportunities for entertainments which are attractive and wholesome. Schools, libraries, museums, and parks are also needed for the children, young people, and adults of the community.

6. *Government.* In these ways such problems as health, protection, occupation, housing, transportation, recreation, and education arise in all communities. In order to solve them it is necessary to have government; for government, after all, is merely an agency or means which man has developed for the solution of social problems. Since questions always come up concerning what kind of government is best, who should serve as officers, and how they should handle community problems, government itself, although an agency which exists chiefly for the solution of the problems of the community, presents problems which tax the ability of the wisest of men.

Summary. A comparison of life in different kinds of communities—primitive, frontier, and modern—reveals certain striking similarities and differences. In a primitive community there was practically no division of labor, property was shared by all the members of the tribe, and individuals were rigidly controlled in the most minute details of life. In

American frontier communities there was also little division of labor; property, while privately owned, was generously shared with those in want; and the liberty of individuals was interfered with very slightly by law or government. In a modern city there is a wide variety in the occupations of the inhabitants; they depend on distant markets for the sale of their products and the purchase of their supplies; and their individual freedom, although not hampered as in the primitive clan, is of necessity much more limited than on the frontier. But after the differences between these communities are recognized, it is still apparent that the members of each of them are bound together by the same kinds of needs and face, with widely different details and with varying importance, like problems of protection, health, occupation, education, and government. It is to a discussion of these problems that the following chapters in this book are devoted.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What are the similarities in the community life of primitive tribes, American backwoodsmen, and the people of a modern city? What are the differences? What is the greatest similarity? the greatest difference?
2. In which type of community—primitive, frontier, or modern—would an individual be least dependent on other people? In which would he enjoy the most freedom? In which would he have the most comforts and luxuries? Why?
3. In what way was a member of a primitive tribe or a frontier community superior as a worker to a modern workman? How was he inferior?
4. What interests you most in the life of a primitive tribe? a frontier settlement? a rural neighborhood of today? a modern city?
5. Compare the three types of communities described in this chapter with regard to their dependence on the outside world. Why is there such a great difference?
6. Why is it necessary to limit individual liberty more in a modern city than in a frontier settlement? What is "liberty"? Does it mean the right to do just as one pleases? Explain.

7. Let each member of the class ask his father or some older person to name six important problems of the community. Tabulate the results in class. Compare with the problems mentioned in the last section; also with those mentioned in the Contents, Part Two.

8. How does the growth of a large city change the character of farming in its immediate vicinity? Why?

9. What was the most difficult problem of a primitive tribe? of Boonesborough? of Chicago? What is the hardest problem of your community? Why?

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

Community Life among the Indians

Long ago in my Community

What interests me most in Clan Life

Primitive Man's Greatest Discovery or Invention

Strange Customs of Primitive Peoples

A Pioneer's Dream

The First Bow and Arrow

The Greatest Problem of our Town

The Last Taboo

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PART TWO. PROBLEMS OF THE COMMUNITY

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CHAPTER VI

CHILDREN OF THE MELTING POT

Citizens by birth or choice of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections.—GEORGE WASHINGTON

SECTION I. THE COMING OF OUR ANCESTORS TO AMERICA

Foreign ancestry of Americans. How long have you lived in America? "Why, all my life," you probably answer. Can your parents or your grandparents say the same thing? Whatever your reply may be, most of us cannot go back very far in our family history before we strike ancestors who were born in England, Ireland, Scotland, Germany, Italy, Russia, or some other country. In fact, one out of every three of us either was born in a foreign land or is the child of a father or mother who was born in a foreign land. At most, none of us can trace our American ancestors back farther than three hundred years.

Mixture of nationalities in America. If you will now make a list of the last names of your classmates or, better, of the people who live in your community you will find words which contain such syllables as *Mac, berg, ton, ski, ing, duff, vitch, mann, stein, son, ini, thal, fitz, and feld*. These syllables show students of language the nation or race from which we or our ancestors came. Most of the "Macs" came from Scotland or Ireland, the "bergs" from Germany, the "tons" from England, and the "skis" and "vitches" from Poland or Russia.

And how many nations are represented in America! At the services held in Brooklyn in memory of the nineteen

men who lost their lives in 1914 during the attack on Vera Cruz by the navy and the marines President Wilson strikingly emphasized this fact when he said:

I listened to this list of the dead with a profound interest because of the mixture of the names, for the names bear the marks of the several national stocks from which these men came. But

AIRPLANE VIEW OF ELLIS ISLAND

Most of our immigrants come to America through Ellis Island, in New York harbor. Here immigrants are detained for examination and investigation until they are allowed to land or are deported.

they are not Irishmen or Germans or Frenchmen or Hebrews or Italians any more. They were not when they went to Vera Cruz; they were Americans, every one of them, and with no difference in their Americanism because of the stock from which they came. . . . No matter what their derivation; no matter where their people came from, they thought and wished and did the things that were American; and the flag under which they served was a flag in which all the blood of mankind is united to make a free nation.

Early comers to America largely English. This great mixture of nationalities in the United States has come about largely in the last one hundred years. Before 1820 emigration to America was largely from England. The story of Virginia and the Southern colonies, of Massachusetts and the New England settlements, is with few exceptions the

TESTING THE INTELLIGENCE OF AN IMMIGRANT WOMAN

America wants only citizens of sound minds and healthy bodies. The general intelligence of this woman is being tested by measuring the time it takes her to place the different-shaped blocks in their proper places in the frame.

story of English settlers conquering the wilderness and overcoming the red man. The names of the thirteen original colonies and of prominent capes, bays, mountains, and rivers, as well as of most of the Eastern settlements, are monuments to this fact.

Bands of French Huguenots, it is true, settled in South Carolina; small companies of Swedes were the earliest inhabitants of Delaware; and large numbers of German and Scotch-Irish settlers came to Pennsylvania, western Virginia, and North Carolina. New York and New Jersey, likewise,

were originally occupied by the Dutch; traces of this fact continue to this day. Thousands of negroes, from no wish of their own, also came to America in early days. But in spite of these and other examples which might be given, the fact remains that down to 1820 the bulk of our people were of English descent.

Irish, German, and Scandinavian immigration, 1820-1885. But about 1820, immigrants began to arrive in larger numbers from other regions. At first this movement was chiefly from Ireland and from western Germany. In 1846 a terrible potato famine in Ireland caused thousands of deaths and led to a heavy emigration to America. For a while these Irish incomers outnumbered all others. About the same time a desperate revolt against the tyrannical rulers of Germany failed and thousands of freedom-loving Germans were shot and imprisoned. "Hard times" and religious oppression, as well as this harsh treatment, caused the first large German movement to the United States.

For a while almost every year saw an increasing number of foreigners come to our shores. In 1854 a record was set by the landing of over 400,000, the most of them coming from Germany. All through the fifties, in fact, immigration was large. While the entire thirty years which followed the War of 1812 saw only 1,250,000 newcomers, the fifteen years from 1845 to 1860 brought almost 3,500,000 immigrants to our ports.

The Civil War slowed up the movement, but shortly after that great struggle the current became stronger than ever. Not only did the Irish and German tide continue, but Norwegians, Swedes, and Danes swelled the incoming flood of immigrants until the total went up into the hundreds of thousands. Free lands in the West, improvements in transportation and communication, and the education and freedom found in America were the chief attractions to the incomers.

Immigration from southeastern Europe since 1885. Down to about 1885, immigrants came almost wholly from the

ONE HUNDRED YEARS OF IMMIGRATION

It will prove an interesting study to find the causes for the sudden changes in the incoming tide of immigrants as shown on this chart. What drew your ancestors to America? When did they come?

countries of northwestern Europe. Then a great change occurred. From Italy, Poland, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Greece, Russia, and Western Asia they began to arrive by the thousands and the tens of thousands. In 1880 the incomers from these countries had numbered only one tenth of our total immigration; twenty-five years later they numbered over eight tenths. In 1913, for example, out of a total of about 1,250,000 immigrants, there were 283,000 from Italy, 278,000 from Austria-Hungary, 255,000 from Russia, and 70,000 from the Balkan states; while the immigrants from Germany, on the other hand, numbered but 35,000 and those from the British Isles but 43,000.

Comparison of the "old" and the "new" immigrants. The "old" immigrants, as those who came to America from northwestern Europe have been called, usually left their native country because they disliked its harsh government, heavy taxes, and compulsory military service, or because they found it hard in the old country to make a living; in early days religious oppression too played an important part in causing them to forsake the land of their birth. In America they found not only freedom from political and religious oppression but a chance to earn a better living and to improve their condition in life, such as was impossible in Europe. These early immigrants came with their families; they usually settled in rural communities where land could be had practically for the taking, and they had no other thought than to become Americans and to make America their future home. With few exceptions their ideals, customs, and habits were much like those of native Americans. As a rule they eagerly seized the opportunity to become naturalized citizens. They caused us few problems.

The "new" immigrants—those who have come to America since 1885—differ from the "old" in many ways. The "old" immigrants frequently were better educated than were native Americans; the bulk of the late comers are from countries where the mass of the people can neither read nor

write. The earlier arrivals were frequently skilled workmen; the late immigrants are generally unskilled laborers. With few exceptions the earlier comers brought their families to America and came to the new country with the intention of becoming American citizens; many of the recent arrivals leave

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION OF IMMIGRANTS

This doctor is examining the eyes of immigrants. No alien suffering from any kind of communicable disease is allowed to enter the United States. This safeguard is necessary to protect Americans against contagion from other lands.

their families in the fatherland and expect to go back to them as soon as they have saved a sum of money. Of the "old" immigrants those who did not speak our language spoke languages more nearly like English than do the southeastern Europeans who make up the bulk of the "new" immigration. As a result they fell more easily and quickly into the speech of the new land. Those who have no desire to become American citizens see little reason for learning English or adopting the customs of this country. Of 2,000,000 men drafted into the army in 1917, 200,000 could not understand English.

Unlike the "old" immigrants, the late comers almost always live in cities. Three fourths of the population of New York, Chicago, Boston, Cleveland, and Detroit and over one half the population of Philadelphia, St. Louis, Pittsburgh, and San Francisco are of foreign parentage. In the cities they have a tendency to live clannishly in racial groups in sections which from this fact are known as the Italian district, the Polish district, the Lithuanian district, and the Ghetto. These are but some of the ways in which they cause us serious social problems.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What does the title of this chapter mean?
2. Find names on a map of the eastern part of the United States which indicate the nationality of the early colonists. What do names in the Southwest show about the nationality of the first settlers there?
3. What do the names of counties, rivers, lakes, and cities in your part of the country show about the national origin of its early inhabitants? What is shown by the names of the streets and roads in your community?
4. Make a list of the nationalities represented in your class; in your community.
5. Make a map of your community showing the different nationalities represented and their numbers; use a red dot to indicate twenty-five persons of one nationality, a blue one to show twenty-five persons of another, and so on, putting on the map as many dots of a given color as there are multiples of twenty-five of that nationality in your community.

SECTION II. THE AMERICAN POLICY TOWARD THE IMMIGRANT

Open-door policy. What has been the policy of the United States toward the immigrant? At first all comers were cordially welcomed, and the doors of America stood wide open to receive them. At that time our greatest need was workers.

Here were dense forests to be cleared, rich mines to be developed, fertile prairies to be cultivated. The chief thing lacking was labor. In early days, accordingly, all immigrants were warmly welcomed.

True, in colonial times, religious intolerance occasionally led the settlers in some colonies to exclude or drive out

IMMIGRANTS LEAVING ELLIS ISLAND

These immigrants have successfully passed the different physical and mental tests given to them on Ellis Island and are now on their way to take the government boat for New York. On some days as many as three thousand persons pass through this gateway to America. At what port did your ancestors enter the United States?

people who disagreed with them in religion. Later, when John Adams was president, trouble with France caused a temporary suspicion of foreigners and led to the passage of harsh laws against them. Again, about the middle of the nineteenth century, the large number of immigrants who were then coming to America aroused a vigorous though brief opposition to foreigners in what was called the Know-Nothing movement. But not until 1876 was any law passed which limited their coming into the country, and even then only criminals were shut out.

Restrictive policy. The open door gradually closed after 1880. Some fifteen years earlier difficulty in securing laborers to build the Union Pacific Railway had caused the importation of Chinese coolies. A few years after the road was completed "hard times" threw thousands of men out of work. Anger against the hard-working, little-eating, frugal, stolid, yellow-skinned Chinaman quickly appeared, and riots, mobs, and lynchings became frequent. As a result the President and Congress were stirred to action. After some negotiations China consented to a change in the treaty by which we had promised to admit her citizens into the country, and in 1882 Congress forbade the immigration of Chinese coolies for ten years. From time to time this prohibition has been renewed, and today only Chinese students, merchants, manufacturers, and travelers are permitted to enter our gates.

Hostility like that toward the Chinese was shown later toward the Japanese, who first came to the United States in considerable numbers in the later nineties. As the result of a friendly arrangement made some years ago, however, Japanese workmen are now prevented by their own government from coming to our country. Unfortunately some bitterness has been caused in Japan by laws passed by some of the Western states which prevent Japanese residents from owning land.

While this opposition to oriental immigrants was developing, many Americans saw with increasing uneasiness the vast numbers of European workmen who were invading the land. More and more demands were made for laws restricting this immigration, and as a result of the agitation Congress, between 1885 and 1910, passed various acts which excluded convicts, lunatics, idiots, paupers, diseased persons, anarchists, laborers under contract, and persons likely to become burdens on the public.

Finally, in 1917, after a fight which had continued over twenty-five years, an act was passed over President Wilson's

veto which provides for the exclusion of "all aliens over sixteen years of age, physically capable of reading, who cannot read the English language, or some other language or dialect." The law, however, permits foreigners seeking

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INSPECTION OF LUGGAGE

Immigrants bring all sorts of things with them to this country. They often expect to be able to plant a garden, and have in their luggage plants, bulbs, and seeds. There is a quarantine against such importations, owing to the millions of dollars' damage that has been caused by destructive insects that have sometimes been brought in. This man's baggage contained sweet potatoes and several rosebushes. The customs inspectors found the plants and tubers and summoned the plant quarantine inspectors of the Department of Agriculture, who promptly seized the articles.

refuge from religious or political persecution, as well as certain relatives of aliens already within the United States, to enter the country even if they are unable to read. In 1920, then, all persons except Asiatics and the above-named classes could, on paying a tax of eight dollars, be admitted to this country. The enforcement of the immigration laws

has occasionally been severely criticized. It is in charge of the Bureau of Immigration of the Department of Labor.

Naturalization policy. In far-away times only free persons born within a country were citizens or members of the state; they alone could be secure in the enjoyment of life, liberty, property, and other privileges of citizenship. The ancient Romans had a wider vision and gradually extended citizenship to the people they had conquered, until in time practically every free person living under the Roman eagle was included. It was left for our own country, however, to develop the most liberal policy toward aliens the world has ever seen.

Such a policy was easy and natural for us. We were all foreigners, more or less remotely, and, as we have seen, our greatest need was workers. In colonial times, therefore, many things were done to attract settlers to America. Not the least of these was the offer to all comers of all the rights and privileges enjoyed by native Americans. After the Revolution this colonial practice became the policy of the nation, and until the Chinese question arose the doors of citizenship remained open on equal terms to all immigrants.

At the present time who are citizens? Who may become citizens? What does citizenship mean? The Constitution answers the first of these questions thus: "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside." But what is naturalization? How can one become naturalized? And what are the advantages of naturalization?

Briefly stated, naturalization is the process by which a foreigner becomes a citizen of another country. In the United States two acts are necessary to bring about this change: first, a formal renunciation, or giving up, of allegiance or loyalty to one's former country or ruler; and second, a solemn declaration of allegiance, or loyalty, to the United States. That is, on becoming naturalized, one must

deny from henceforth all obedience to his native land and its rulers and become a loyal citizen of America. By the process of naturalization he becomes, for all practical purposes, as much a citizen or member of our country as if he had been born under the shadow of the Stars and Stripes.

A foreigner can be naturalized only by a federal, state, or territorial court of record. At the time of his application he must be at least eighteen years old. He may then take out his "first papers." To do so he must declare before the court his intention of becoming a citizen of the United States and of renouncing his allegiance to any foreign country or ruler. Not less than two nor more than seven years later he may appear in

court and, on condition that he has reached the age of twenty-one and has been for five years a resident of the United States, may submit a petition in which he gives his full name, place of residence, occupation, date and place of birth, place from which he emigrated, and certain other information. This petition must be signed by himself and by two reliable witnesses who are American citizens and who must testify that they have known him for five years and

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CITIZENS BY CHOICE

These applicants for final citizenship papers are taking the oath of allegiance to the United States in the Naturalization Bureau in New York City. Why should these men want to become citizens?

that he is of good moral character. He must also declare that he is not opposed to organized government, that he does not believe in polygamy, that he renounces forever any hereditary title he may possess, and that he intends to become a citizen of the United States. The court cannot grant a certificate of naturalization, or "second papers," until ninety days after the petition has been filed nor within thirty days before a general election.

Aliens must be able to read and write English before they can be naturalized, and they must pass an examination in such subjects as American history, civics, and geography. There are some exceptions to the requirements just given, but owing to their rare occurrence or unimportance they do not need to be discussed here.

Advantages of naturalization. Why should a foreigner become naturalized? Perhaps the chief reason is that in no other way can he cease to be a foreigner. One who gets his living in this country and who is protected by its laws should be eager to support and defend it against its enemies. Moreover, complete protection by the law as well as certain property rights are open only to citizens. In addition, a citizen is looked upon in a more kindly way by his neighbors than is a foreigner; he is more likely to be regarded as "one of us," as a member of the community rather than as an outsider. As a citizen he will also have less difficulty, as a rule, in securing a job when jobs are scarce. Some companies, in fact, will not employ aliens at all; others will discharge them before they will discharge citizens if they find it necessary at any time to cut down the number of their employees. The greatest value in naturalization, however, is the satisfaction which comes from being an American—from belonging to the country of Washington and Lincoln and Roosevelt and to a land which is founded on principles of justice, righteousness, and liberty. It is this desire which in many notable instances has led men and women to renounce the land of their birth and to become loyal citizens of the United States,

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What was the Alien Act? Why was it passed? Why was it objectionable? Compare the provisions of this act with our present naturalization laws (see any American history).
2. What were the aims and methods of the Know-Nothing movement? Why was it so called? (See an American-history textbook.)
3. Should adult foreigners who cannot read be allowed to enter our country? Give reasons for your answer.
4. Give three arguments for excluding unskilled foreign workmen from the United States; three for allowing them to enter.
5. Are you a citizen? How can you tell? Are all voters citizens? Are all citizens voters? Which is the more valuable—the right to vote or the right to be a citizen? Explain.
6. What is the literal meaning of naturalization? What rights does a native-born citizen have which a naturalized citizen does not possess? Should there be any difference between them? Give reasons. What directions would you give a foreigner who wanted to know how to become naturalized?
7. Why should a foreigner who wishes to become naturalized be required to make each of the different declarations on page 158? Why are the other details required?
8. Dramatize the naturalization of a foreigner.

SECTION III. PROBLEMS OF IMMIGRATION

Immigrants. Incoming foreigners are sometimes unjustly pictured by many of us as clad in outlandish garments, with bright-colored shawls on their heads, carrying bundles of different shapes and sizes in their arms or on their backs, and accompanied by many children—children in their arms, hanging to their coats, clinging to their skirts. In their labor we associate them with pushcarts of bananas, oranges, or apples; with the digging of ditches and tunnels and excavations; with the building of railroads, canals, and skyscrapers; with the mining of coal and iron; and with work in kitchen, laundry, factory, and mill. Sometimes we think

of them as "dagos," "sheenies," "Polacks," "greasers," and "hunkies," speaking an unintelligible jargon or a ludicrous, half-broken English. Occasionally we look on them as a benefit to the country; sometimes as a nuisance; frequently

IMMIGRANT MOTHER AND CHILDREN

They have come all the way from Jugoslavia to find a home in America. Their bags and bundles probably contain all their possessions, but the determined face of the mother and the cheery countenances of the youngsters as they eat their first bread in the New World promise well for their future.

as a danger. Seldom do we picture them as we do the Pilgrims, leaving native land and loved ones and braving unknown hardships and perils to win freedom and opportunity in far-off America.

And yet thousands of aliens come to our shores every year with motives and dreams quite as noble as those which led the early colonists to face the difficulties and dangers of the American wilderness hundreds of years ago. No one who has read Mary Antin's story of the hopes which brought her,

a Jewish girl, from downtrodden Russia to the promised land, or M. E. Ravage's account of his journey across the sea from distant Rumania to the United States, can doubt their willingness to suffer and their courage to endure. Bishop Hughes saw the vision:

They come! they come! escaped from the mailed fist of oppression or fleeing from the ghost of life-long poverty, and for this journey half across a world some of them have saved money out of wages that did not exceed eight cents a day. Slavs and Italians and Scandinavians and Germans and Jews, I see them come! Coming to bear the burdens and dig the tunnels and carry heavenward the towers of mighty cities, or to bend their backs over prairies that have never known the plow!

And so they come, and so they have come. Such they are and such they have been. The toilers, the martyrs, the scholars, the men of heaven-dowered genius!

Our country would indeed be a poorer land had it not been for the contributions of immigrants. In the days of the Revolution it was the sturdy Scotch-Irish pioneers who determined in large part the outcome of the struggle in the back country; during the Civil War Northern regiments of immigrant volunteers did much to save the Union; in the late World War it was from those born under a foreign sky that thousands of our soldiers were recruited. Such men as Louis Agassiz, Carl Schurz, Robert Owen, Jacob Riis, Joseph Pulitzer, and John Muir—all of them citizens by choice, not by birth—rendered services to their adopted country which cannot be exaggerated. In addition, it is to immigrant laborers that we are indebted for much of the economic progress of our country—the building of its railroads, the erection of its skyscrapers, and the conquest of its forests, prairies, and mines. To immigrants we owe also much of that variety in manners, customs, and ideas which plays so great a part in making American life picturesque and interesting.

But when this is said the fact remains that many immigrants who seek our shores are not the sort described by Bishop Hughes. Thousands come with no higher motive than the getting of gold. Drawn by tales of fabulously high wages and caring nothing for our customs, ideals, or institutions, the interest of such comers centers only in what they can get out of the country, not what they can give it. But whether they come with high, noble purposes, or whether they are attracted only by the opportunity to get money, whatever their motive may be, their presence brings us serious problems.

American working conditions and standard of living. One of these problems is the preservation of our working conditions and our standard of living. Recently arrived immigrants are willing, if necessary, to work at hard, rough labor for long hours, for low wages, and under conditions which American workmen would not tolerate. Not that foreigners like long hours, low wages, and bad working conditions, but, ignorant and in a strange country, they oftentimes become easy victims of the greed of unscrupulous employers, and thus, unintentionally, they lower American working conditions.

In addition, many foreign men leave their families in the fatherland while they seek their fortunes across the sea. In this country they crowd together in unhealthy lodging houses or in small rooms in private homes where they endanger both the health and the morals of the community. Eager to economize, they eat the cheapest of foods and wear the poorest of clothing. Since their living expenses are therefore far below those of the average American laborer, they can and

*Most of the people who live on the East Side of New York City are of foreign stock. Here on a holiday or upon a Saturday afternoon can be seen representatives not only of almost every nationality in Europe but of many of the races of Asia. The jargon of tongues, variety of costumes, and medley of pavement shops and peddlers' carts make this quarter of the city a colorful and fascinating picture. The crowded condition of the homes of many of these people is indicated by the washings which hang from the windows and fire escapes. Does your city contain any foreign districts?

THE EAST SIDE, NEW YORK CITY *

 Ewing Coleway

frequently do work for lower wages than he can afford to accept. Thus they not only occasionally throw Americans out of work but tend to lower the American standard of living. Further restriction of immigration, help in securing work at fair wages and under proper conditions, and education in American ideals and standards seem the most hopeful remedies for these dangers.

Insanity, poverty, and crime. In the second place, immigration magnifies such problems as insanity, poverty, and crime. In proportion to their numbers, immigrants, it is said, contribute more than their share to the insane in our asylums and three times as many as do natives to the paupers in our poorhouses. While these large figures are probably due to the fact that the proportion of adults among immigrants is greater than among native Americans and that insanity and poverty are more common among adults than among young people, these conditions, whatever the cause, put a burden on American communities.

A curious and unfortunate result of the efforts of foreigners to become like Americans is the high criminal rate among their children. Looking upon their parents as old fogies and as un-American, these young folks frequently become ashamed of them, disobey their commands, lose faith in their religion, and with no effective method of control by home or Church become disorderly and lawless. As a result the criminal rate among the children of foreigners is three times what it is among native Americans. Another important cause of the high rate of crime among these children is doubtless the fact that they usually grow up in the crowded slum districts of our cities, where the influences for evil are so many.

The old notion that the rate of crime is higher among foreign-born adults than among natives has, however, been disproved. The apparent excess came from an unfair comparison. For example, in 1910 over one fourth of the white persons confined in prisons were of foreign birth, while the foreign-born population at the time was less than one sixth

of our total white population; from this comparison it would seem, therefore, that the criminal rate among the foreign-born was almost 50 per cent greater than among natives. But when we remember that crime is committed largely by adult males and that foreign-born males then formed over one fourth of our adult male population, the misleading character of the first comparison is apparent; the fact is that, instead of the rate of crime being higher among *adult* foreigners than among *adult* natives, it is less. Our problem, then, is not so much how to cure the lawlessness of the parents as how to prevent that of the children. In solving this problem the American school has a wide opportunity.

Politics. Oftentimes immigrants have unintentionally had a bad effect on politics. Fully one third of the foreign-born now in this country are unable to read and write. Their illiteracy is due not so much to lack of ability or to indifference as to the fact that they have had no chance to learn in their native land. But in a country like ours, where the people rule, they are often a danger to the cause of self-government. Ignorant of the meaning of democracy, since many of them have come from countries where the people have had little control over their governments, immigrant voters frequently become the tools of wicked and ambitious politicians who use them to advance their own selfish purposes. Edward Steiner, himself an immigrant, thus describes a personal experience:

We had returned to our boarding-house, which, like most of its class in that industrial state, furnished more beer than bread. While we were sitting about, after our frugal supper, a group of American men entered, so well-groomed and prosperous-looking as to arouse our respect if not our envy. The most distinguished among them was introduced to the barkeeper, who brought him to our group. The distinguished American shook hands all around, telling us he was a particular friend of the Poles, and that as a token of that friendship he had asked the saloon-keeper to fill us up.

Evidently he knew nothing about the Poles, nor how much it takes to fill them up; for they drank till daybreak, when they fell into a drunken stupor from which they were aroused to be marched to the ballot box.

Protection from injustice. Not only are immigrants frequently the dupes of politicians, but they frequently fall victims to sharpers, who in various ways trick them out of their hard-earned savings. This trickery begins many times in the old country. Eager for profit from the sale of tickets, agents of steamboat companies paint extravagant pictures of the easy work and the high wages to be had in America. With apparent kindness they frequently help the peasant sell or mortgage his little farm to obtain passage money. For years, it is said, there were thousands of these agents in Galicia and Poland, who lived like parasites on the commissions they received from the sale of tickets to ignorant peasants who believed even the most unlikely stories about rich America.

When immigrants with these expectations arrive in New York, Boston, or Baltimore and secure only a chance for hard work—at high wages, it is true, but with what seems to them enormous expenses—they feel keenly disappointed. And when, in addition, they find their wages reduced “\$1 for interpretation” and “\$2 for fees” by dishonest employers, it is small wonder that they become embittered, disorderly, and dangerous to the community. Of course many immigrants do not have such distressing experiences, but those who do—and their number is not small—become in frequent instances malcontents and anarchists.

If those who have been unjustly treated return to their native land, they go back hating America for the wrongs they have suffered. A traveler who recently returned from Russia tells of asking a regiment of Russian soldiers how many had been to America. Many hands were raised. “How many of you plan to go back when the war is over?” he asked. Not a hand went up. “Why not?” was his

astonished query. "A man can't get his rights in America," they said. Now whether conditions in the United States justify such an attitude or whether they do not, the fact remains that for some reason these Russians had become embittered by experiences which they had had in this country. Safety to ourselves, no less than justice to them, requires that so

SEVENTEEN NATIONALITIES IN ONE SCHOOL

In one of the Gary, Indiana, schools these children of seventeen different nationalities are learning to become good Americans. How many nationalities are represented in your class? in your community?

long as we permit people from other countries to enter our gates we shall protect them from injustice and ill treatment.

Americanization. Many efforts have been made in recent years, especially since the World War, to solve our immigration problems and to Americanize and protect our foreign population. The immigration act of 1917, which excludes adults who cannot read or write, will undoubtedly lower the illiteracy of the newcomers. Other laws have been passed to protect foreigners against tricksters and dishonest employers, to establish healthy working conditions, and to improve housing, purify politics, and provide means of education.

Although many of these laws are inadequate and oftentimes poorly enforced, considerable progress is being made.

Ellis Island, off New York City, is the door through which most foreigners enter America. Here and at similar stations in such ports as Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore immigrants are detained for physical and mental examination. At these detention points the government has provided playgrounds for the children and concerts for the adults and has done much to make the stations like homes instead of prisons. Local organizations have been active in providing for the wants of immigrants. A federal bureau to help them secure work has also been established; it has branches in almost one hundred cities. In order to get the children of immigrants into school quickly the Bureau of Naturalization notifies the school officials of any locality of the time when immigrant children of school age will arrive in their communities.

In California a state immigration commission has been very active in safeguarding the working conditions of immigrants and in showing immigrant mothers how to take care of their homes. Cleveland has been a leader among our cities in making good citizens of its foreign population. A city immigration official meets and welcomes newcomers. Steps are immediately taken to give them employment and education and to arouse in them a desire for citizenship. The schools, public libraries, churches, and industrial establishments all help in this work.

All through the country there are many private organizations which have also been active in arousing in our foreign population an admiration and love for America. Prominent among these are the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the National Americanization Committee, the Colonial Dames, and the Sons of the American Revolution.

But important as the activities of these organizations are, the greatest need in solving the problems of immigration, as

well as in solving our other social problems, is not to provide some agency to do the work but to arouse in the community a sympathetic, helpful attitude toward the people concerned. If we look down on the immigrant as upon an inferior, if we try to root out of him all his ideals and customs, if we

AN EVENING CLASS FOR ALIENS

Many ambitious immigrants, both men and women, are so eager to learn English and to acquire an education that they are regular attendants at evening school. Do the schools in your community have classes in the evening?

If so, what is taught in them?

attempt to make him just like ourselves, we shall not only fail to make him a good American but we shall lose all that he might give to make our country strong, noble, and beautiful. The thrift of the Scotch, the wit of the Irish, the tenacity of the English, the methodical qualities of the German, the courtesy of the French, the art and patience of the Slav, the light-heartedness of the Italian—all contribute to the interest of American life and are needed to enrich the America of the future.

Summary. The American people are a mixture of nationalities. Down to 1820 our population was mostly of English stock; between 1820 and 1885 immigrants came chiefly from the countries of northwestern Europe; since that time the great mass of incomers have been from the countries of southeastern Europe. The "old" immigrants—those who came between 1820 and 1885—were for the most part skilled workers, fairly well educated and eager to become Americans. The "new" immigrants—those who have arrived since 1885—have generally been unskilled workers, illiterate and with little desire to become American citizens. Down to 1876 all comers were welcomed to our shores, but since that time the bars have gradually been raised so as to exclude those thought undesirable.

The "new" immigrants have caused or aggravated a number of our serious social problems. Among these the most important are (1) the preservation of American standards of living, which are threatened by the lower wages and poorer conditions to which many immigrants have been accustomed in the old country and to which they are willing or forced to submit in the new; (2) the danger to democratic government caused by the ease with which evil men can manage the ignorant "foreign vote." To remedy these evils, further restriction of immigration and the extension of educational facilities are greatly needed.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why should we "Americanize" foreigners? How can this work be done? What is meant by "Americanization"?
2. Is learning to speak, read, and write English essential in becoming Americanized? Explain.
3. Should the teaching of foreign languages in the public elementary or high schools be abolished? Give reasons.
4. Should the use of foreign customs be permitted here; for example, should foreign folk dances, costumes, and foods be allowed? Give reasons.

5. Should foreign immigration be further restricted? If so, by a property qualification? by an additional educational test? in some other way? Explain.

6. Granting that we are not merely selfish and that we sincerely wish to better all mankind, can we best do so by admitting all immigrants into our country, by excluding some and admitting others, or by excluding all? Explain.

7. Should the local community bear any, a part, or all of the expense of educating immigrants? Give reasons.

8. What is being done in your community to cause foreigners to love America and to become good citizens? Is there any way by which you can help in this work?

9. Name contributions which the following groups of immigrants have made to America: Germans; Irish; French; Greeks; Italians; Rumanians; Russians; Poles; Bulgarians; Hungarians; Danes; Swedes; Norwegians; English; Bohemians. Let each pupil investigate one of these nationalities.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that foreign unskilled laborers should not be allowed to enter the United States during the next ten years.

Resolved, that the expense of educating the immigrant should be paid by the national government.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

The Diary of a Russian Immigrant Boy
Americanization Work in my Community
Mary Antin's Impressions of America
Why my Ancestors came to America
How Edward Bok was Americanized
My Parents' European Home

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CHAPTER VII

THE HEALTH OF THE COMMUNITY

Health and a good constitution are better than all gold ; and a strong body than wealth without measure.—THE SON OF SIRACH

Public health is purchasable. Within natural limitations a community can determine its own death rate.—MOTTO OF NEW YORK STATE BOARD OF HEALTH

SECTION I. THE IMPORTANCE OF HEALTH

Health and study, work and play. Did you ever try to play baseball when you had a toothache? or attempt to study your lessons when your head was fairly splitting with pain? or try to wash the dishes or weed an onion bed when you were deathly sick from eating too much pie or pudding? If so, you do not need to be told that good health is necessary for effective study, efficient work, and joyous play. The fact is, of course, that there is no activity in life where health is not needed, whether it be work, war, or sport. A factory does not want sickly workmen; a football team, anemic players; a department store, disabled clerks. An army of invalids could not put up much of a fight against a sturdy foe.

It is true that there are many inspiring stories of persons who in spite of sickness accomplished useful and difficult tasks. Afflicted with a painful and incurable disease, General Grant worked at his "Memoirs" day after day up to the time of his death. Tortured by splitting headaches, William III nevertheless rode resolutely at the head of his troops in campaign after campaign. With death knocking at the door, Robert Falcon Scott's stiffening fingers wrote on at his undying story till the antarctic cold stilled his heart and stopped his pen forever. The victim of severe nervous attacks, his

frail body torn by constant suffering, Robert Louis Stevenson penned story after story and book after book long after his physicians had despaired of his life; for years, they said, it was courage alone that kept his soul and his body together.

But, encouraging as these stories are, especially to those who are physically handicapped, they merely emphasize by the force of contrast how much most of us depend on strong, healthy bodies for the doing of steady, worth-while work and the playing of vigorous, wholesome games.

Health and the army.

No man understood this better than Theodore Roosevelt. At all times he urged the strenuous life, or, as an Italian translator better put it, "the vigor of life." When he was president rumors once reached him that many officers in the army were physically unfit. Finding by personal investigation that the rumors were well founded, he ordered every officer to prove himself fit for the service by walking fifty miles, or riding one hundred, in three days. Criticism was at once directed at what was called "the capricious unreasonableness of the order." To prove the contrary, one day in winter during which both snow and sleet fell, President Roosevelt,

PUTTING THE SHOT

School athletics aim to make possible a sound mind in a sound body. The pose of this vigorous athlete shows enthusiasm, strength, and an exquisite balance. We hope he has put the shot fully fifty feet.

accompanied by the surgeon general of the army and two other officers, rode a little over a hundred miles in about twelve hours. After this demonstration by the commander in chief open opposition to the order ceased, and the physical condition of the officers of the army noticeably improved.

A WELL-LIGHTED, CONVENIENT FACTORY BUILDING

At the left is the railroad platform, where freight is loaded and unloaded right at the plant. The wall has almost the appearance of a huge window, and a large part of the roof is used for skylights. In many plants the air is washed as it enters the building by being forced through a veil of running water. Sanitary drinking fountains are provided, as a rule, at convenient locations.

Describe the health campaign of some concern in your city.

The value of health is appreciated nowadays as never before. In the army camps during the World War the greatest pains were taken to safeguard the health of the men: food was carefully inspected; water was analyzed; sewage and waste were scrupulously disposed of; tents, buildings, and equipment were kept as clean as a Dutch kitchen. On

entering camp, recruits were quarantined, vaccinated against smallpox, and inoculated against typhoid. Hospitals were of the best. Everything known to medical science was done to protect the health of the men. As a result, deaths from disease were fewer than in any of our previous wars. In the Mexican War, for example, the annual death rate from disease averaged 110 out of every 1000 soldiers; in the

GIRLS' REST ROOM

This rest room, with its couches and lounging chairs, its magazines and books, its flowers and plants, is typical of the interest which many firms take in the health and comfort of their employees. Well-furnished clubrooms are also frequently provided for the men. Often there are, in addition, gymnasiums, bowling alleys, shower baths. This room is in a large packing plant in Chicago.

Do any firms in your city provide such places for their employees?

Northern army during the Civil War the average was 65; in the Spanish War, 26. But in the World War it was only 17!

Education and industry. Schools, factories, mines, and stores are also giving the problem of health more and more attention. Every state now requires that hygiene shall be taught in the public elementary schools. Up-to-date factories and stores are not only well lighted and ventilated but contain first-aid hospitals, rest rooms, and gymnasiums.

The lengthening of human life. The chief results of this wider knowledge and better observance of the laws of health have been a great improvement and lengthening of human life. In Geneva, the best-governed city in all Europe, the average length of life in the sixteenth century was 21.2

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A FACTORY HOSPITAL

The doctor is examining the eyes of an applicant for a job. The nurse is bandaging a girl's injured hand. As a rule first-aid treatment for injuries and medical attention for illness are furnished without charge to employees in all first-class modern factories.

years; in the seventeenth century, 25.7 years; in the eighteenth century, 33.6 years; in the nineteenth century, 39.7 years. But even an average of thirty-nine or forty years, encouraging as it is when compared with the average of earlier centuries, is no great cause for pride. Apparently, if we observed the laws of health as well as does a horse, a cow, or even a fly, we should live to be several times forty years. A horse grows until it is about three years old, and with good treatment it will live to be thirty; a cow grows until about

two years old, and, unless killed, it will live to be about twenty; the larvæ period of the fly—the period of growth—is about two days, and unless it is destroyed by its enemies it will live twenty days. In short, unless they meet a violent death most creatures, it is said, live about ten times their growing-age. Now the growing-period of mankind is fifteen, eighteen, or twenty years; if we did as well as the lower animals, therefore, and lived ten times our growing-age, we should live to be one hundred and fifty, one hundred and eighty, or even two hundred years old!

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. "Health is the first of all liberties." What does this mean?
2. Can you give examples other than those mentioned in the section of persons who accomplished important work in spite of physical handicaps? Do these instances prove that good health is unimportant? Explain.
3. How many days of school have you lost this year because of sickness? What is the average daily attendance in your school? What percentage of the absences was caused by sickness? What effect do absences have on the school? on the taxpayer?
4. What physical education is given in your school?

SECTION II. WHY THE COMMUNITY NEEDS TO SAFEGUARD HEALTH

Health largely determined by surroundings. If you will take a map of your community and put a black dot wherever the health reports indicate a death or a case of serious illness, you will soon have certain spotted areas. If you will now visit these sections you will find that they are the crowded tenement districts of your city. And the darker and more crowded the district, the higher you will find the sick rate and death rate. The explanation is simple. Good health is largely a matter of fresh air, sunlight, pure water, and wholesome food, and these in turn are largely the result of surroundings.

Few things, for example, affect health so quickly as do impure air and insufficient light. But pupils in a schoolroom usually have no control over either air or light. Ventilation may be good, bad, or indifferent; temperature, too high or too low; lighting, ideal or wretched; and pupil, teacher, and, occasionally, the janitor may be able to do nothing to remedy

A MODERN SANITARY DAIRY BARN

© Ewing Galloway

Impure milk is one of the chief causes of death among babies and little children. This dairy barn, with its concrete floor and feeding troughs, its iron stanchions, and its numerous windows and skylights, is ideal for cleanliness and light.

the difficulty. There are school buildings where the ventilating system is faulty, the heating plant defective, the windows improperly placed and deficient in number. At times the air is full of bad odors from street and alley or contains smoke and soot from neighboring factories or railways. In short, the quality of air and light is generally determined by surroundings which the community alone can control.

In much the same way environment controls the water we drink, the food we eat, and the clothes we wear. A few years ago all Milwaukee suffered because a few factories dumped

chemicals into Lake Michigan, the source of the city's water supply. Every summer thousands of babies are poisoned by milk from unclean cow barns or dirty milk cans. Canned foods put up in insanitary canneries have at times carried disease and death broadcast. Even clothes made in sweatshops by people afflicted with tuberculosis have more than once carried the deadly tubercular germs to far-distant places. Unless those suffering from diseases like scarlet fever are prevented from coming in touch with their neighbors, contagion will spread through an entire community. The last serious smallpox epidemic in this country started in the South; it traveled northward by way of small towns and rural districts until it had spread through all the Eastern states.¹ In 1918 the Spanish influenza appeared in Spain, ravaged Europe, crossed the Atlantic, and before it disappeared destroyed the lives of more Americans than were lost in the entire World War. Dangers like these can be prevented only by the community.

Many diseases preventable by community action. Thousands of deaths could be prevented and millions of dollars saved every year by proper community action in guarding the public health. In our own country 500,000 people suffer constantly from tuberculosis; half as many die from the disease annually. Pneumonia kills an equal number. Every year we have 40,000 cases of typhoid, of which 5000 prove fatal. In the South hookworm causes thousands of deaths each year. Sickness is said to keep three out of every one hundred workers idle all the time. The three who are sick this week may be back at work the next, but their places on the sick list will have been taken by three others. Unnecessary deaths, diseases, and accidents cost in money alone more than \$2,000,000,000 annually, to say nothing of the sorrow and misery they always bring.

Most of this loss and suffering is unnecessary. Tuberculosis is preventable and, in its early stages, can be cured.

¹ W. H. Allen, *Civics and Health*, p. 18.

Ignorance and carelessness are largely responsible for pneumonia. Typhoid can easily be prevented by protecting the water and milk supply and by killing flies, the carriers of the disease. In Cleveland, it is said, schoolboys, serving as health police, so successfully swatted the few flies found in the early spring in attic windows and other breeding places

AN OPEN-AIR SCHOOL

In many cities open-air schoolrooms are provided for weak or tubercular children. Bundled up from head to foot in warm clothes, they enjoy the out of doors quite as much in winter as in summer. In these schools the children usually improve not only in weight and health but also in their studies. Are there any open-air classrooms in your town or city ?

that after two years screens were practically discarded ; in an inspection of the city markets, where food and meat were exposed to the open air, only two flies were found. By draining swamps and stagnant pools malaria can be prevented. In West Virginia, where the protection of health was very poor a few years ago, sickness from measles was three times as high as in Pennsylvania, its next-door neighbor ; while the sick rate from whooping cough was fourteen times that of the Keystone State. By diverting its sewage

away from Lake Michigan—the source of its water supply—Chicago lowered its death rate from typhoid from 173.8 for each 100,000 of population in 1891 to 1.1 in 1920. In fact, community action can largely prevent or check such

THE PREVENTION OF ACCIDENTS

The man with the cap injured his hand while at work in the factory. After having it bandaged at the factory dispensary, he is telling the safety engineer how the accident occurred. By discovering the exact causes of accidents, by emphasizing "Safety First," and by installing safety appliances wherever possible, many modern industrial concerns have reduced the danger to life and limb in their establishments.

diseases as tuberculosis, typhoid, diphtheria, smallpox, yellow fever, malaria, cholera, whooping cough, and hookworm.

Since health, then, is largely a matter of environment, only those who control the environment—the people—can safeguard health. Without effective public control of the causes of disease, contagion in the tenement destroys good health

in the mansion; carelessness in the dairy leads to sickness in the nursery; clothing made in a sweatshop brings the white plague to the cottage; an epidemic in Spain spreads death in America. Knowledge of these facts has in modern times guided the fight against disease. Now, as never before, we know that good health can be guarded only by community action.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. The death rate from typhoid in one American city in 1919 was 58.4 to every 100,000 of population, while in another it was only 1.3. What conditions might account for this great difference? What is the death rate from typhoid in your community? What was it ten years ago? What caused the change?

2. Examine the last annual health report of your community to find the causes for deaths during the past year. Rank the diseases in the order of their seriousness. Can you judge the efficiency of your health department by these figures? Explain.

3. How is your school heated? How is it ventilated? How is it supplied with water?

4. What is being done in your community to destroy flies? What should be done? Does your community have any ordinance requiring the use of screens to protect exposed food against flies? If so, is it being enforced?

5. Is your community afflicted with malarial fever? If so, is anything being done to destroy the disease?

6. Why must the *community* safeguard health?

SECTION III. HOW THE PUBLIC HEALTH IS SAFEGUARDED

Infants and small children. One half of all deaths occur before the age of seven years. Impure, insufficient, and improperly prepared milk; foods like sausage and pork; drinks like tea and coffee; improper clothing and bedding; neglect of what appear slight ailments; lack of fresh air, sunlight, and bathing,—these are the chief causes of the frightful

loss of life among babies and young children. Physicians say that four fifths of these deaths could easily be prevented.

Effective steps have been taken in recent years to prevent this waste of life. Practically every city and state in the country now has laws to safeguard the milk supply. Where

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BOTTLING MILK

On many farms the cows are milked by machinery, and the bottles are washed, filled, and capped by machinery. In this way the possibilities of contamination are lessened and greater speed and economy are obtained. Visit the plant of a dairy company in your community and note the care which is taken to secure cleanliness.

these laws have been enforced immediate improvement in health has taken place, but unfortunately the people in some communities have not shown much interest in the matter and, as a result, violators of such laws have frequently gone unpunished.

School children. One half of the men rejected for physical defects by our army and navy during the World War were defective because they had been neglected in childhood. At

this period of life decaying teeth, adenoids, enlarged tonsils, mouth breathing, eyestrain and ear strain, and unsuitable or insufficient food cause present and future trouble. In New York City a few years ago an examination of over 275,000 children showed that more than seven in every ten had some physical defect. If uncorrected, these defects frequently lead to disease; deafness or blindness occasionally develops; nervousness, inability to learn, and criminal tendencies appear. The cost of the extra school work which these pupils require and the care of those who become criminals or objects of charity would in itself more than pay all the expense of remedying most of these evils. Corrective measures would also make possible lives of usefulness and happiness to many who otherwise must pass their days in misery. Fortunately, in recent years, many cities and states have taken steps to better the health of school children.

Adults and children. In the third place, there are health problems which concern older persons and children alike. Prominent among these problems are such matters as pure air and water, drainage, and the disposal of sewage and wastes.

1. *Air.* Dust and smoke are the chief dangers to our air supply. They come in large measure from traffic, factories, apartment buildings, locomotives, and steamboats. The atmosphere in cities is seldom clear; new buildings are frequently blackened by soot before they are completed. In Pittsburgh and Chicago the sky is so darkened by smoke and the air is made so impure that there are sections in both cities in which even beans, peas, and tomatoes cannot live. The effect of such an atmosphere on health can be imagined.

In some communities the dust evil has been lessened by making streets and roads practically dustless. In the summer they are sprinkled with water; sometimes oil or a tar preparation is used. Where the expense is met by the neighboring property-owners or tenants, only the wealthier districts can secure relief, and they suffer more than they realize from dust from the poorer sections. Experts think it is much

better for the community if all the streets are made dustless and the entire expense is paid out of the common treasury.

The smoke evil is especially irritating because it is so unnecessary and wasteful. By careful firing methods, by

CLEANING A BUILDING

The amount of soot and dust in the air of some cities is shown by the striking contrast between the parts of this building which have been cleaned and those which have not been cleaned.

the use of smoke-consumers in factories and apartment buildings, and by the electrification of locomotives, smoke could in large part be done away with, and after the first expense had been met money would be saved to those who spent it. Laws have been passed to stop this evil, but in many instances they do not prove effective because the people do not demand their enforcement.

2. *Water.* Few things are of greater concern to any community than water. The patriarch Abraham always pitched his tent by a stream, spring, or well; if none was near, the

first task was always the digging of a well.

In medieval times the monasteries and castles were always built near sources of water. In selecting sites for their settlements the early Americans also gave first consideration to the nearness of springs or streams of running water. In ancient days the emperor Claudius at an enormous expense made an addition of two great aqueducts to the water system of Rome in order to give the city a more abundant supply of fresh water from the mountains, some forty miles away. So well built were such aqueducts that four of them are still in

THE LOS ANGELES AQUEDUCT

This great aqueduct, said to be the longest in the world, carries water to Los Angeles from the Owens Valley, 235 miles away. The water serves not only to supply the needs of the city but also to generate electricity and irrigate land. Unlike the New York aqueduct, this one is on the surface most of the distance, for there is no danger of the water's freezing in southern California.

use. "They convey to the city a more plentiful supply of water," says one historian, "than any great modern city receives elsewhere."¹

¹J. H. Breasted, *Ancient Times*, p. 620.

Modern cities, too, have gone to great trouble and expense to secure an abundance of pure, fresh water. Los Angeles brings its water in great steel pipes, through tunnels, over mountains, and across deserts, for a distance of over two hundred miles. At enormous cost Chicago turned the current of the Chicago River from Lake Michigan toward the Mississippi and in this way greatly improved the quality of its water supply. New York, at an expense of almost \$200,000,000, recently constructed an aqueduct from the Catskill Mountains, more than a hundred miles away. From a number of reservoirs water is brought to the city in steel conduits and through miles of tunnels blasted in the solid rock; near West Point the water flows under the Hudson through a rock tunnel more than a thousand feet below the surface of the river. The aqueduct can supply New York with over five hundred million gallons of water a day, or more than twice what the city uses at the present time.

Water should be not only pure but cheap. Only in this way can people afford to use it unsparingly for sprinkling, laundry work, and personal cleanliness. Its use is so vital to the welfare of the community that some persons advocate furnishing it free, if necessary, in order to have an abundance of it used; others maintain that free water is of doubtful wisdom, declaring that where it has been furnished free it has resulted many times in mere wastefulness.

3. *Wastes.* In a town or city it is impossible for each person to dispose properly of ashes, garbage, and sewage. The construction of sewers and the carting away of refuse must be provided for by the community. Where this is not done filth and disease abound. In the old days, for example, few cities made any attempt to dispose of waste matter. Houses were jammed close together in order to save the expense of building the city walls around a larger area than was absolutely necessary. The streets were narrow and full of mud-holes. They were often the only place for getting rid of slop and rubbish. It was a common practice, therefore, to throw

waste matter into the street. Many a passer-by—occasionally a noble or even the king himself—was unexpectedly drenched by slop thrown from the doorway by a careless housewife.

The condition of the streets was frightful: many times they were impassable; they filled the air with disgusting odors and were breeders of disease. But as centuries went by, reforms were gradually introduced. Occasionally these changes were started by some public-spirited citizen. In his autobiography Franklin tells about such a beginning in Philadelphia:

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A SANITARY FISH STAND

This sidewalk stand, with its abundance of ice and its hinged window covering, is an excellent example of the proper way to preserve sea food from spoiling and to protect it from flies and dirt.

One day I found a poor industrious man, who was willing to undertake keeping the pavement clean, by sweeping it twice a week, carrying the dirt from before all the neighbors' doors, for the sum of sixpence per month, to be paid by

each house. I then wrote and printed a paper setting forth the advantages to the neighborhood that might be obtained by this small expense; I sent one of these papers to each house, and in a day or two went around to see who would subscribe an agreement to pay these sixpences; it was unanimously signed, and for a time well executed. This raised a desire to have all the streets paved, and made the people more willing to submit to a tax for that purpose.

4. *Pure food.* The purchaser of groceries, meats, and other foods has no sure way of protecting himself against impure or adulterated goods. By the use of chemicals, spoiled foods can be changed so that anything offensive to the taste or smell is concealed. The ordinary purchaser,

RAT-INFESTED HOUSE

Rats and mice are carriers of dangerous diseases. The bubonic plague—an Asiatic disease—has been carried by rats to ports all over the world. Such vermin thrive in the midst of dirt. Conditions like those pictured above not only endanger the members of the household but also menace the entire community.

moreover, usually cannot tell the difference between a genuine article and a substitute. Unscrupulous men have taken advantage of such ignorance to get rid of food which, had its real condition been known, they could never have sold. To remedy these evils Congress, after years of public agitation, passed the Pure Food and Drugs Act (1906). This law forbids the shipping from one state to another of any food or drug which bears a false label or which contains

anything injurious to health. On the whole it protects the people and has, for the most part, been fairly well enforced.

5. *Epidemics.* In ancient and medieval times plagues which caused the deaths of thousands of people were common.

The most notable of these was the Black Death, or bubonic plague, which ravaged Europe between 1347 and 1351. It is estimated that 25,000,000 people, or from one third to one half the total population of Europe, died from its ravages. Whole families were destroyed. In some villages there were hardly enough people to care for the sick and bury the dead. It is said that 50,000 people died in Paris, 60,000 in Florence, 100,000 in London. Recurrences of this pestilence swept over Europe at intervals until well into the nineteenth century, and in oriental countries it lingers to our own day.

In early times pestilences were thought to be punishments sent by God. As man

LOUIS PASTEUR

Few men have done more to make the world a safe place to live in. As a result of his discoveries, it is now possible to check such dread diseases as diphtheria, cholera, tuberculosis, lock-jaw, and hydrophobia. His discovery of the process of pasteurizing milk has alone saved the lives of untold numbers of babies.

found out more about the body, however, he became convinced that they were the result of his own ignorance, carelessness, or neglect. No effective way of fighting them, however, was discovered until about fifty years ago. Then after painstaking and long-continued experiments a French scientist named Louis Pasteur discovered that contagious

diseases were caused by bacteria or germs. His discovery laid the foundation for modern surgery and sanitation. As a result, epidemics such as formerly scourged mankind can now usually be prevented.

Protection from contagious disease is a matter of protection from germs. To understand how to secure such protection one must understand germs.

How do germs act? On what do they live? Why do they move from place to place? What causes them to become extinct? With few exceptions, germs migrate for the same reason as man,—search for food, love of conquest, and love of adventure. When there is plenty of food they multiply rapidly. Like human beings, they will do their best to get away from a country that provides a scanty food supply. Like men and women, they starve if they cannot eat.

They have a peculiar diet, being especially partial to decomposing vegetable and animal matter and to what human beings call dirt. By putting this diet out of their reach we make it impossible for them to propagate their kind. By placing poison within their reach or by forcing it upon them we can successfully eliminate them as enemies.¹

All communities today should enforce strict health regulations. Streets and alleys should be kept clean; garbage should be put only in covered cans so as to permit no breeding places for flies; quarantines should be rigidly maintained where there are contagious diseases; poorly ventilated and overcrowded street cars should not be tolerated. By such action, and such action alone, can the public health be safeguarded.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is being done to protect the health of the babies in your community? Do you have any visiting nurses? If so, what do they do?

2. Does your school have health supervision? Are the pupils given physical examinations regularly by a physician?

¹Abridged from W. H. Allen, *Civics and Health*, pp. 58f.

3. Has anything been done in your community to relieve or prevent tuberculosis?

4. How is your milk supply protected? your water supply?

5. What is done in your community to lessen or prevent dust?

6. Describe the water-supply system of your community. Is it owned by the public or by a private company? (Examine the last annual report of the bureau of water.) The Chicago waterworks plant furnishes to every inhabitant of the city a daily average of 259 gallons of water; compare with the quantity supplied in your community.

7. How is garbage disposed of in your community. To what uses can garbage be put?

8. Mention ways in which boys and girls can help keep their neighborhoods clean. Do you ever have "Clean-up Day" in your town or city?

SECTION IV. HOW TO LIVE LONG

Personal responsibility. No matter how complete the safeguards established by the community, you must depend largely on yourself, of course, for a strong, healthy body. Usually you alone can control your hours of sleep, your exercise, what you eat and drink, and your daily habits. Few of the regulations of the community can do you any good unless you are willing to obey the rules of health and do your part.

Theodore Roosevelt the man. No one appreciated this better than Theodore Roosevelt or made more determined, systematic, and successful efforts to become strong. As a child he was so puny and sickly as to be kept out of school for months at a time on account of physical weakness. He was also so timid and nervous as to be utterly unable to play or fight on equal terms with other boys of his own size or age. But through reading about the bold deeds of his ancestors, of Morgan's riflemen, and of the hardihood of the heroes of Valley Forge he early conceived a great desire to become strong. Until nearly fourteen years old, however, he did

little to carry out this ambition. Then came an incident which proved a turning point in his whole life. He says:

Having an attack of asthma, I was sent off by myself to Moosehead Lake. On the stagecoach ride thither I encountered a couple of other boys who were about my own age but very much more competent and also much more mischievous. I have no doubt they were good-hearted boys, but they were boys! They found that I was a foreordained and predestined victim, and industriously proceeded to make life miserable for me.

The worst feature was that when I finally tried to fight them I discovered that either one singly could not only handle me with easy contempt, but handle me so as not to hurt me much and yet to prevent my doing any damage whatever in return.

The experience taught me what probably no amount of good advice could have taught me. I made up my mind that I must learn so that I would not again be put in such a helpless position; and having become quickly and bitterly conscious that I did not have the natural prowess to hold my own, I decided that I would try to supply its place by training. Accordingly, with my father's hearty approval, I started to learn to box.¹

Training in boxing was followed in later years by wrestling, horseback riding, tennis, polo, and hunting, until Roosevelt became one of the most robust men of his times. Nothing but his iron physique carried him successfully through his arduous African hunting trip and his no less difficult South American explorations—expeditions which experts had pronounced physically impossible for one of his age. Even after receiving an assailant's bullet in his chest he was able, owing to his strong constitution, his splendid health, and his steady nerves, to stand for over an hour and deliver a vigorous political address. Many of us would find it hard to equal the physical prowess of Roosevelt, but with very few exceptions we can all enjoy as good health if we are willing to pay an equal price in determination and effort.

¹From T. R. Roosevelt's "An Autobiography," pp. 32-33. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

The rules of health. The rules of health are simple. Chief among them are those requiring abundant light, fresh air, pure water, regular and sufficient sleep, exercise, cleanliness, amusement, good food. To a large extent, nowadays, these are matters under our own control. By obeying them and working with others to improve the safeguards of our community we can make our own bodies vigorous and strong and, in addition, can promote the health of our neighbors.

Summary. Good health is vital for success in study, work, and play. To a large extent it is the result of fresh air, light, pure water, and wholesome food. Since these things are all affected by environment, and since environment, for the most part, can be controlled by the community alone, the public health can be protected only by community action. Realizing this fact, many communities have taken steps to protect babies and little folk by guarding the milk supply and by teaching mothers the best methods of caring for young children. They have attempted to safeguard school children and adults by establishing means to correct physical defects, to insure pure air, water, and food, to dispose properly of waste matter, and to prevent epidemics of disease. The chief agencies in carrying on this work are those of the local governments, but valuable assistance is given also by the state and federal governments and by various private organizations. No matter how thoroughly these agencies do their work, however, they cannot guarantee us good health, for the responsibility for our own physical condition rests chiefly on ourselves. We alone can observe the laws of health, and without such observance all community regulations are in vain.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What does your school do to improve the health of your community? Does your church do anything along this line?
2. Which is the most important health rule in the next to the last paragraph of the chapter? Give reasons.

3. Find out all you can about the life and work of one of the following men: Louis Pasteur; William C. Gorgas; Walter Reed; Jesse W. Lazear.

4. What is the greatest health reform needed in your community? What do you think is necessary to bring it about?

QUESTION FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that each pupil in the public elementary schools should be provided at public expense with one pint of milk every school day.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

A Fly-Swatting Campaign
Clean-up Day in our Town
The Cost of Health
When we were Quarantined
Guarding the Health of the Babies
How Yellow Fever was Conquered

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CHAPTER VIII

THE POLICE FORCE

The police force is organized for the prevention of crime, the capturing of criminals, and the aid and convenience of the public.—FRED KOHLER

SECTION I. HOW THE POLICE SERVICE DEVELOPED

Need. Every game, from football to marbles, has its rules or laws. These rules are intended to give every player an equal chance in the contest. The player who will not obey them spoils the fun; he gets into trouble; he is regarded as a cheat; sometimes he is penalized; occasionally he is put out of the game.

The family, school, church, and community also have rules or laws. Like the rules of a game, the laws are intended to give all persons equal rights and privileges. He who breaks them refuses to respect the rights of others, and for their safety it may be necessary to put him in prison or to punish him in some other way. It is to prevent crime, to arrest lawbreakers, and to serve the public in other ways that the police exist.

Medieval police. In England in medieval times every man served as a policeman. When a cry of "Thief! thief!" was raised, all the men and boys between fifteen and sixty years of age instantly dropped their work or play, joined in the shout, and, accompanied by the dogs of the neighborhood, took after the fugitive. Like hounds pursuing a fox, they kept up the chase until the runaway was captured or until he escaped. This old custom was known as the hue and cry. According to it the duty of protecting the community from crime rested on all the men of the neighborhood. It was very wasteful of a man's time.

In those far-off days towns and cities were protected by thick walls of brick or stone, on the top of which armed men called warders kept watch both day and night. Upon the approach of an enemy they sounded the alarm bell in the belfry tower to call the citizens to arms. In addition to protection against foes from without furnished by walls and warders, most medieval towns had a number of watchmen or constables to guard them against enemies from within. Armed with heavy cudgels or spears, these constables walked the streets and attempted to protect the inhabitants from the sturdy thieves and thugs who lurked in the dark alleys. With lantern and pike they made their rounds at night, calling out, "Past ten o'clock and all's well!" or "Four o'clock and a cloudy morning!" They served not only as guardians of the community but as its news-bringers and weather reporters.

These medieval officers were picturesque, but they did not protect the citizens very effectively, and as cities grew in size it became more and more difficult to keep order and prevent crime. In London in 1685, says the historian Macaulay, "it was a favorite amusement of dissolute young gentlemen to swagger by night about the town, breaking windows, upsetting sedans, beating quiet men, and offering rude caresses to pretty women." Even as late as a century ago riots were frequent; men were robbed in broad daylight; murders were common incidents. One man out of every five, it is said, was a lawbreaker.

The first modern police force. About that time Sir Robert Peel, a noted English statesman, became convinced that the harshness of the laws and the inefficiency of the constables were two great causes of crime. By eloquent and persistent urging he and other reformers persuaded Parliament to repeal many of the existing death penalties; for, at the time, more than two hundred different offenses were punishable by death. Some years later (1828) Peel also secured the passage of an act which provided for the establishment in London of the first modern police force.

In the beginning there was much opposition to a permanent, armed police force. To a liberty-loving people like the English, who for centuries had regarded a standing army as a constant threat to freedom, the constant presence of an armed body of men seemed dangerous. In fact, for the first eight or ten years after Peel's law went into force, there were frequent clashes between the populace and the "Bobbies," or "Peelers," as the policemen were nicknamed after their founder. But their efficiency gradually won them popular favor, and in time they came to be copied as models the world over.

Progress in America. New York City did not replace her watchmen by policemen until 1844; other American cities were even slower in making the change. Opposition to the wearing of uniforms lingered for years, but in time it disappeared, and today the uniform is universally approved. While charges of inefficiency, corruption, and brutality are sometimes made with justice against the police, the old hostility to them has long since vanished. The great mass of citizens now respect and admire them as the friends and protectors of the community.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In what ways did the old-time constables differ from the police of today?
2. Why have liberty-loving people in the past opposed a large standing army? Do their objections apply to a large police force? Explain. Why have people rarely objected to a large navy?
3. Why should policemen wear uniforms? What disadvantages are there in the uniform?

SECTION II. WHAT THE POLICE DO

Enforcement of ordinances. Policemen should not be thought of merely as men with clubs whose duty is to arrest criminals, although this is an important part of their work. They must also enforce city ordinances. They must prevent

peddlers from blocking the sidewalk with their wares, teamsters from leaving their wagons in the streets, chauffeurs from parking their cars so as to interfere with traffic, citizens from leaving snow or ice on the sidewalks so as to endanger passers-by, vehicles from using streets which have

A TRAFFIC POLICEMAN

The safety of pedestrians and autoists as well as the speed of traffic depends to a large degree upon the coolness and dispatch of this policeman. He sees 36,000 motor cars pass in a day. Note at the right the safety island for foot passengers.

been closed for the play of children, boys from playing truant, and shopkeepers from littering up the pavement.

Public safety. And they do far more than this. They stop runaway horses, prevent the reckless speeding of automobiles, take care of lost children, and give information to strangers. They notify the police station promptly about gas leaks, defective street lights, stolen automobiles, and fires, accidents, or riots. In the busy down-town districts

traffic policemen, by signals with hand, whistle, or sign, prevent confusion and keep automobiles, trucks, and street cars moving as rapidly as is safe for pedestrians and vehicles.

Regardless of personal danger, policemen often risk their lives for the safety of others. In New York City recently a patrolman at great hazard stopped three runaway horses attached to a fire engine; another bluecoat caught a mad dog which had already bitten five persons; two other officers almost perished in rescuing a number of people from a burning five-story tenement. Instances of similar heroism have occurred in every city in the United States.

Arrest of criminals. An important activity of the police, of course, is the arrest of criminals. After a

policeman makes an arrest he usually telephones for the patrol wagon. The prisoner is then taken to the station house, where the sergeant investigates the charge against him. If it is a serious one, such as murder or burglary, the prisoner is searched and locked in a cell. If he is accused of some

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A MODERN TRAFFIC SIGNAL TOWER

In some large cities traffic is directed from signal towers erected in the middle of the street at intervals of six or eight blocks. The flashing of different colored lights in daytime as well as night guides drivers for a distance of half a mile or more. The tower acts also as an isle of safety for persons on foot.

slight offense, such as fighting, he is released on bail; that is, his friends agree to pay a certain sum of money if he does not appear in court at the time set for his trial. In the case of speeders the patrolman instead of making an arrest usually takes the automobile number and orders the offender to appear in court the next morning. As a rule persons arrested for petty offenses are given a hearing before a judge the day after their arrest. They are then set free, punished by fine or brief imprisonment, or held for trial in a higher court.

Nowadays the police of the more progressive cities make few arrests, for they have found by experience that the taking of all offenders to the station increases rather than lessens crime. The great majority of those whom they arrested were merely dismissed by the judges. Several years ago this condition of affairs convinced Kohler, the "Golden Rule" chief of police of Cleveland, that something was wrong with police methods. He says:

Each year nearly twenty thousand persons were arrested only to be discharged. As many more wives and parents and children were brought in contact with the shame of it all. And what good did it do? . . . It hurt everybody. Even the crowd that saw the arrest was hurt by it. The man arrested was disgraced. The man's family was disgraced. His little children were disgraced. They were jeered at by their schoolmates. The man lost a day's work—which he could ill afford. Possibly he lost his job. . . . The city lost, too—it lost the time of the officers who had to be in court as witnesses, it lost the time of the court officials. For two thirds of the cases were dismissed, and everybody was the worse for it.

After long thought Kohler decided to try a different method. One Christmas morning he called in the members of the department and explained his plan. Officers were to stop arresting first offenders for misdemeanors. "They were to warn them and to tell them the law. If there was a disturbance on the streets or a neighborhood row they were

to learn the cause and, if the trouble was trivial, send the men about their business." The result was encouraging. "Under the new policy," says Kohler, "there is less crime in Cleveland, less property stolen, than ever before."¹

Rapid police action. The signal system in an up-to-date city enables the police to act rapidly in any emergency. By a flashlight system in New York, for example, a signal lamp, which may be operated from the station house or by a citizen on the street, flashes at four-second intervals. This light can be seen at night almost half a mile. When it attracts the attention of the patrolman on duty he goes to the signal post, and by the telephone finds out what is wanted. By this system a patrolman can summon to his assistance every policeman in his precinct or in the city. Motor cycles have also greatly increased the speed with which the police can act.

One night in May, 1917, the lieutenant in charge of one of the New York police stations was notified that the driver of a large limousine had run over and killed a man and, without stopping, had kept on his way at high speed. Immediately the message was sent to the men on duty. Ten minutes later the automobile, still at top speed, tore past a policeman without obeying his warning to stop. Again the station was notified and again the message was passed out to the men on duty. The patrolman in whose direction the car was coming immediately took possession of two automobiles which were passing and placed them head to head so that they almost blocked the way. Scarcely was this done when the limousine thundered in sight. In attempting to pass between the two cars the driver was forced to slow up. Immediately the patrolman leaped on the running-board, put his revolver at the head of the chauffeur, brought the car to a dead stop, and placed the six occupants under arrest. The entire episode, from the time of the accident to the capture of the speeders, occupied barely a quarter of an hour.

¹F. C. Howe, "A Golden-Rule Chief of Police," *Everybody's Magazine* (June, 1910), Vol. XXII, pp. 817-818.

Work of detectives. None of the work of a modern police department is more interesting than that of detectives, or plain-clothes men. Dressed like ordinary citizens they have opportunities to prevent crime and to capture offenders which are impossible to a man in uniform. Owing to their study of the methods of criminals they are usually able in the long run to outwit the wildest, most dangerous lawbreaker.

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THE ROGUES' GALLERY

The detailed descriptions and measurements which are made of suspected criminals help the police to identify fugitives from justice in spite of any disguise they may adopt. The records and photographs are filed so that any one of them can be found very quickly. This system, called the Bertillon system, after its inventor, greatly increases the safety of the community.

Identification of criminals. To help ferret out crime a remarkable system of recording a minute description of a person who has a "police record" has been developed. Not only is his photograph taken from different angles, but his height, weight, length of arms, shape of head, size of ears, color of eyes and hair, and form of nose are all recorded. Last of all, his finger prints are taken. This is an unfailing method of identification, for the small lines and circles on the ends of the fingers are alike in no two of us and are not

easily destroyed. The leaving of a finger print on a pane of glass or a window sill has more than once led to the undoing of a lawbreaker. In trailing criminals trained dogs at times have also been of great service. Since the police of different cities telegraph or telephone one another the detailed description of a fugitive from justice, it is almost impossible for him to escape capture sooner or later.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What proportion of the persons arrested in your community are discharged without trial? What does this suggest about the work of the police or the courts?

2. What do the police in your community do to help safeguard the public health?

3. Describe the most heroic act of any policeman, constable, or sheriff in your community in the last ten years (consult your father, an older acquaintance, or someone on the staff of the local newspaper).

4. What is the most important service of the police to your community? Which of their activities touches the greatest number of people directly? indirectly? Explain.

5. The *Chicago Tribune* for several years has given \$100 each month to the deputy sheriff or policeman who has performed the most praiseworthy act the previous month. Is such a reward desirable? If so, would it be better to have it given by a private individual or company, or by the government? Give reasons.

SECTION III. HOW THE POLICE ARE CONTROLLED AND ORGANIZED

Military organization. In most respects the police are organized like an army. At the top is a chief of police. Below him, ranked in order, are deputies, inspectors, captains, lieutenants, sergeants or roundsmen, and patrolmen. In general, each officer has authority over the men who are beneath him.

Civilian control. While the chief of police has authority over the entire police force, he in turn is responsible to a

commissioner or to a board of commissioners. The commissioners are always civilians, never members of the police force. . In this way the real control of the police is not with a professional like the chief, but with civilians. Theodore Roosevelt, for example, although not a police officer, had authority as commissioner over the ten thousand policemen in New York City. By civilian control the harsh and rigid methods sometimes used in the army are prevented, the rights of private citizens are more securely guarded, and the supremacy of the civil over the military power is maintained. Since the civil authorities are responsible to the people, civilian control means control by the people.

State or local control. In some states (Massachusetts and Maryland, for example) the police of certain cities are under the control of the state government: the police commissioner of Boston and the police commissioner of Baltimore are each appointed by the governor of the state. In Illinois and New York, on the other hand, the police are under a local commissioner or a local board appointed as a rule by the mayor. The police commissioner or board appoints the chief of police, adopts regulations for appointments and promotions in the service, and decides all matters of general policy.

Those who favor state rather than local control maintain that it is almost impossible to enforce an unpopular law in a community in which the police are controlled by local authorities who, in turn, are controlled by local politicians or local public opinion. On the other hand, those who advocate local control insist that municipal authorities best understand local problems and hence should control all branches of the local government, including the police.

Police precincts. For police purposes a city is divided into precincts. In each precinct there are a number of patrolmen. Each man has his own route, or beat, to cover and is responsible for good order there; he is required to report at frequent intervals to the precinct station. The size of a beat varies greatly in different parts of a city—residence

precincts are usually large, business precincts small. The sergeant or roundsman inspects the work of the patrolman frequently to see that he does not neglect his duty. A captain is in charge of each precinct. It is his duty to keep a record of all murders, burglaries, and other crimes which take place in his precinct.

Policewomen. Practically all large cities now have women on the police force. In 1919 New York City, for example, had eighteen policewomen as regular members of the force and, in addition, a volunteer organization of women which numbered five thousand. Policewomen investigate crimes affecting women and girls, act as peacemakers in family quarrels, help to secure employment for women, and occasionally serve as traffic officers. At police headquarters there is always a matron. In protecting women and girls in railway stations, public parks, and on the streets, policewomen give invaluable service.

Police positions and salaries. Positions on the police force can be obtained as a rule only through mental and physical examinations. Applicants are usually tested on their knowledge of the city and its government, on some of the common branches such as reading and arithmetic, and on the duties of policemen. Although politics no longer plays much part in securing a man a position, it occasionally prevents his advancement and leads at times to his being placed on an unpleasant beat or even to his reduction in rank. Most positions in the police service pay salaries ranging from \$1000 to \$2000 a year.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why should the police be controlled by civilians? Are the army and navy under civilian control? Explain. What are the chief advantages of civilian control?

2. How can positions be secured on the police force of your community? What salaries are paid? How can policemen be removed from their positions?

3. Are there any policewomen in your community? If so, what do they do? How are they selected for the force?

4. Are the police in your community controlled by the local government or by the state government? Name the chief advantages of local control; of state control. Look in the encyclopedia and see which method is used in England; France; Canada.

SECTION IV. HOW THE STATE AND NATION EXERCISE POLICE POWER

Police power. Police power is not limited to the protection of life and property from criminals nor is its exercise limited to what is commonly called the police force. Police power includes the guarding of public health and morals from any danger whatever. Under its authority sanitary and quarantine regulations are made, railways are required to fence in tracks and place watchmen at dangerous crossings, the speed of automobiles and motor cycles is limited, liquor and gambling laws are enacted. Police power may be exercised not only by members of the police force but by firemen, building inspectors, and officers of departments of public health. Examples of its use are given in Chapters VII, IX, and XII.

Police power belongs to the state, though it is exercised in large part by the local governments acting for the state and within certain limits fixed by state laws or city charters. If constables, sheriffs, or the local police cannot handle riots, disturbances, or other conditions which threaten the safety of the community, it is the duty of the governor of the state to send the state national guard to their assistance.

Need for rural-police protection. There is serious need to-day for a better police force in our rural communities, for, contrary to the common notion, the proportion of crimes which go unpunished in rural communities far exceeds that in the cities. In frontier days the settlers themselves meted out justice to wrongdoers. In the rough mining camps of California and Colorado law-abiding settlers also had rude but effective ways of preventing and punishing crime. But

today, in most rural neighborhoods, farmers and villagers must depend for protection upon the untrained constable or the county sheriff. With the coming of the interurban, the automobile, and improved roads, cunning city criminals find it easy to rob rural banks, stores, and homes, while tramps are often a terror to defenseless women and children.

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ENFORCING AUTOMOBILE REGULATIONS

In some cities autoists are required to have identification cards and to show them on demand. The chief purpose of this requirement is to aid the police to check illegal driving and to recover stolen automobiles. The man in the car is showing his card to the officer.

The brutal murder of a young construction superintendent, Sam Howell by name, in a rural district in New York a few years ago showed in a dramatic way the need of better police protection in such communities. One who was present when the tragedy occurred describes the event as follows:

Early one Saturday morning, on his way to his work, Howell was ambushed by four men who demanded the week's pay roll. The four brandished revolvers. Howell was alone and unarmed.

But, no matter what the odds, it was impossible to that boy to surrender a charge. So he drove his motor cycle straight through the gang, who emptied their revolvers into his body from a distance of two paces.

Bleeding from seven mortal wounds, Howell guided his machine over a thousand yards of rough road, to the construction site. There he kept grip on his consciousness until he had turned over the heavy pay roll to a responsible man; until he had made careful record, for his successor's use, of certain structural weaknesses in the work that he alone knew and that otherwise might be neglected; and until, by name and by number, he had positively identified two of his murderers who had been employed for a month on the job. Then he collapsed. Three days later he died.¹

Although all four of the murderers remained in the vicinity for hours, no effort was made to arrest them. Howell's fellow workmen were afraid to try to capture them. In the emergency the local sheriff-constable system broke down completely.

State police. New York had for some time been considering the establishment of a state police force; the Howell tragedy hastened action. The State Troopers, as they are called, are a picked body of young men, most of whom have previously served with excellent records in the army. No man whose past is not absolutely clean can secure a position on the force. The Troopers patrol the state on horseback, arrest criminals, prevent forest fires, enforce the game laws, and assist the local authorities in preserving order.

Several years previously a state police force or "state constabulary," as it is sometimes called, had been organized in Pennsylvania. Shortly after its introduction a street-car strike in a western city in the state resulted in riots and destruction of property. The local police lost control of the situation. Upon the request of a city official seventeen members of the mounted police were sent to the town. When

¹ *World's Work* (January, 1918), Vol. XXXV, p. 266.

they arrived a mob of fifteen hundred men was besieging the car barns. Within a short time the crowd was dispersed and order reestablished. On another occasion where the local authorities proved helpless the state police established a quarantine during an epidemic of scarlet fever in a foreign settlement near Wilkes-Barre. When the little child of a Hungarian miner disappeared the State Troopers, after a search lasting for days, finally found her and brought her back home. Although the total force in Pennsylvania numbers less than five hundred officers and men, they answered in a single year over three thousand calls for assistance from sheriffs and chiefs of police, mayors, and other officials. The money secured from fines as a result of arrests by the Troopers runs annually into thousands of dollars.

During the first ten years of their existence the Pennsylvania state police saved thousands of dollars to farmers by preventing the robbing of gardens and orchards and by destroying sheep-killing dogs.

STATE POLICE

The state police ordinarily give the people of rural communities protection similar to that given to city residents by the municipal police. One fourth of the states now have some kind of rural police force. For an example of one kind of activity of the state police see the picture on page 421.

Epidemics of glanders have been stamped out, horse stealing reduced to a minimum, game and fish laws enforced until they are for the first time generally respected, forest fires controlled and prevented, and the highways and byways freed from dangerous tramps.¹

UNITED STATES TROOPS

All the able-bodied men of the nation may be called to arms if necessary in order to preserve law and order and to maintain the safety of the public. This picture shows the review of the famous Yankee Division upon its return from France.

They have also coöperated effectively with city police in capturing fugitive criminals. Unfortunately there are indications that at times they have abused their power, especially in connection with industrial difficulties.

National police power. The national government, too, exercises police authority. If state officials are unable to handle riots or insurrections the governor or state legislature may secure aid by calling on the president of the United States.

¹*World's Work* (January, 1918), Vol. XXXV, p. 268.

Indeed, if the disorder is not ended by the state officials, the president may interfere even if no appeal is made, especially if the enforcement of national laws is hindered or a dangerous uprising against the legal authorities occurs.

Official Photograph, U. S. Navy

FLOTILLA OF UNITED STATES DESTROYERS OFF BALBOA, CANAL ZONE

If necessary, the president of the United States can order the navy and the army to any point to enforce the police regulations of the nation or to assist the local authorities in enforcing the law. These destroyers have a speed of thirty-five knots; each is armed with four three-inch guns.

Such was the case in Illinois in 1894 when President Cleveland sent troops to Chicago to prevent interference with the mails by the Pullman strikers. A century earlier President Washington, in spite of the protest of the state governor, sent fifteen thousand militia to western Pennsylvania to put down the Whisky Insurrection. The greatest exercise of police

power, however, was in 1861, when President Lincoln called out the militia of the Northern states to maintain the Union.

In addition to its part in preserving public order, the national government exercises police power in guarding public health and morals. As we have seen, it coöperates effectively with the state governments in protecting the people from impure foods and drugs (see page 191). By the Webb-Kenyon Act of 1913 it forbade the sending of intoxicating liquor into a prohibition state. Under the eighteenth amendment to the Constitution it has provided for the enforcement of prohibition throughout the nation. It also takes steps to guard against piracy on the high seas, the counterfeiting of the national currency, and disorder within or invasion of national territory. To carry out these great powers it depends to a large extent on federal marshals, but in time of crisis it may use the militia or the regular army and navy.

Summary. The police exist to protect the public from crime, to enforce ordinances and laws, and to promote in other ways the common safety. Looked upon at first with dislike, the police are now regarded by law-abiding citizens as friends and helpers. Although they are organized like an army with a chief at the top, final control of the force rests with civilians, who pass on police regulations and decide all matters of general police policy. Efficient police protection, such as is ordinarily furnished in New York and Pennsylvania by the State Troopers, is needed in all rural communities. Police power is exercised for the most part by local agencies, but both state and national governments stand ready to assist in maintaining the public safety whenever emergencies arise.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Do citizens of today have any obligations like those which rested on the men of the Middle Ages when the hue and cry was raised? Does the sheriff of your county have any authority over bystanders when he needs help in making an arrest or quelling a

riot? Can the state or national government compel citizens to serve in the militia or the army against their will? What bearing do your answers to the second and third questions in this group have on the first? Explain.

2. Is there a state police in your state? If not, what protection is given the people who live in rural communities?

3. Find out about the methods of protection which were established in California or Colorado in the days of the gold discoveries (consult McMaster, *History of the People of the United States*, Vol. VII, pp. 609-614; Costigan, "American Mining Law," *Community and National Life*, A-17; also Bret Harte, *Tennessee's Partner*, or S. E. White, *Gold*).

4. Find out what you can about the Canadian mounted police.

5. What is meant by "police power"? Write a list containing as many different instances of the exercise of police power as you have noticed in your community. What examples of its exercise can you find in Chapter VII?

6. In which of the instances included in your answer to the foregoing question was the police power exercised by local officials? state officials? national officials? What conclusions about the exercise of police power should you draw from your answers?

7. Describe one of the following: the Whisky Insurrection; the Pullman strike. How did Washington and Cleveland justify their actions? On what grounds were they denounced? How did Lincoln justify the calling out of the troops in 1861? (Consult any American history.)

8. Describe the Ku Klux Klan and its activities (consult any American history). In what respects were the deeds of this organization pernicious and un-American?

9. Find out what you can about the work of the United States Secret Service (see Du Puy, *Uncle Sam, Detective*).

10. Can boys and girls aid the police in any way? Can ordinary adult citizens? Explain.

11. Is there a retirement or pension allowance for the policemen of your community? If so, what are its provisions?

12. If a policeman or a fireman is killed in your community while discharging his duties, what provision is made for his family? If he is permanently disabled, what is done for him and for those dependent upon him?

QUESTION FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that the police should be controlled by the state government.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

The Early History of our Police Force
 How I was once helped by a Policeman
 The Work of "Plain Clothes" Men
 The Bravest Policeman our Town ever had
 Rural Police Protection

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CHAPTER IX

FIRE PROTECTION AND PREVENTION

The annual fire loss of the United States represents a closely built-up street, a thousand miles long, with every structure in it ravaged by the destructive element. Picture yourself driving along this terribly desolated street. At every thousand feet you pass the ruins of a building from which an injured person was rescued. Every three quarters of a mile there is the blackened wreck of a house in which someone was burned to death.

CHARLES W. BAKER

SECTION I. OUR NATIONAL BONFIRE

America's annual fire loss. If all the gold and silver mined annually in the United States were dumped into the sea the loss would be only half as great as that caused every year by fire. A fire breaks out somewhere in our country on the average about once every minute. The damage caused by these fires amounts to almost \$1,000,000 a day. This means a tax of more than \$3 a year to every person in the United States, or, if we add the cost of insurance and of the fire department, an expense of over \$6 annually, or more than \$30 to a family of five.

Fire insurance a tax. But cannot loss by fire be prevented by insurance? Only in the sense that the person whose property is burned can by insurance put a large part of the loss on others. The fact is that we all suffer when there is a destructive fire, for insurance rates are always fixed by the extent of fire losses, and the higher the loss the higher the rate. This really means that we are all forced to pay higher prices for what we buy, since the cost of insurance is always added to the selling price of goods. In this way fire insurance is a tax on everyone.

Take wool for example. Wool in the warehouse is insured—that is a tax. It is insured in transportation, and there it pays a fire tax. It is insured in the textile factory where it is worked up into cloth. It is insured in the clothing store, insured in the tailor shop, in the department store; and all the way along, this fire tax is added to the cost, and when you buy a coat you pay it.¹

A MILLION-DOLLAR FIRE

The burning of this factory represents a loss in supplies, machinery, and buildings estimated at one million dollars. Many such fires may be prevented by proper precautions. Even in case of fire the building may be saved if automatic sprinklers or modern fire-fighting apparatus are available.

By far the greater part of this tax is needless, for with proper care at least three out of every four fires could be prevented. In Great Britain the fire loss runs about 50 cents a person; in Austria in a recent year it was eight cents; in all Europe it averages about 33 cents; while in the United States—to repeat—it is more than \$3, a loss many times greater than that of any country in the world.

¹Quotation from "A Campaign to Prevent Fires," in the National Fire Protection Association Yearbook (1915), p. 6.

Chief causes of fires. What are the chief causes of fires? The general manager of the National Fire Board sums them all up in the one word "carelessness." Take the losses of a single year. In 1916 fires caused by electricity (not including lightning) destroyed over \$16,000,000 worth of property; defective chimneys and flues, almost \$13,000,000; improperly installed stoves, furnaces, boilers and their pipes, \$11,000,000; smokers of cigars and cigarettes, \$8,500,000; matches, \$7,300,000; kerosene and gasoline, \$5,000,000. Proper care would have reduced this loss to a mere fraction of these sums.

Electricity. Fires from electricity, for example, are caused chiefly by the carelessness with which contractors place wires in buildings and by the thoughtlessness with which women use electric irons and cooking utensils. When the doorbell or the telephone rings, the housewife or maid frequently does not take the time to turn off the current before answering the call, the iron becomes too hot, and a fire takes place. It was in this way that the beautiful home of John Wanamaker in Philadelphia was destroyed. In Boston ex-Governor Draper's \$350,000 residence was burned to the ground by a fire which was traced to an electric plate-warmer. Thirty thousand fires are caused annually by similar carelessness.¹

Rubbish. Fires brought about by rubbish alone run into millions of dollars every year. When green hay, greasy rags, cotton waste, or oily cloths are piled in heaps and left to themselves they become hot and finally burst into flames.

There was once a nice new church that was destroyed in that very way. It had just been finished, and the afternoon before the day set for the first service, some of the ladies of the congregation wiped the woodwork with oily cloths. When they had finished and were going home, one of them suggested that it was a pity to throw away the new dusters, and accordingly they were put into

¹ *American City*, Vol. XIX, pp. 371 ff.

a closet for safekeeping. In that night the church was entirely destroyed by fire. The cloths in the closet had caught fire by spontaneous combustion.

Matches and gasoline. It is not strange perhaps that matches cause many unnecessary fires, for over seven hundred million of them are used daily in the United States. Many of these fires come from the carelessness of parents in leaving matches within the reach of little children. Men and

IMPORTANT CAUSES OF FIRE

Carelessness is responsible for the destruction of millions of dollars' worth of property every year. Does the picture suggest to you any ways in which you can help to prevent the starting of fires?

boys destroy thousands of houses and barns by thoughtlessly tossing matches and lighted cigarettes or cigar ends in wastebaskets, on the floor, and in piles of rubbish. In Newark, New Jersey, there were in a single year two hundred and fifty-six match fires which cost on the average \$3000 each. Girls and women by their carelessness in cleaning gloves, blouses, and other wearing apparel with gasoline or benzine near an open-flame light have sometimes caused dangerous explosions and destructive fires.

The Christmas tree decorated with cotton, wax candles, and paper chains; the bonfire of leaves, paper, and wood; the unscreened open fireplace; the rubbish heap,—each takes needless toll every year in fires which cost millions of dollars and hundreds of lives.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Was your house ever on fire? If so, what was the loss? How was the fire caused? Could it have been prevented? Explain.

2. Report on one of the following disasters: Chicago fire of 1871; great fire in London in 1664; Iroquois disaster; San Francisco earthquake and fire in 1905 (consult encyclopedia).

3. What are the fire-insurance rates in your community: (1) in business section; (2) in residence section? Are they higher or lower than the rates in other communities of the same size? In either case find out the main reasons for the difference. (Secure this information from a fire-insurance agent.)

4. What causes spontaneous combustion? Do you know of any fires which were so caused?

5. How many fires were there in your community the past year? What did the total fire loss amount to? What was the average loss from fire? What were the causes of these fires? How many of them were preventable? (Get information on these points from the last report of your fire department.)

6. What is meant by a fireproof building? Is your school building fireproof? Does it contain fire-fighting appliances? If so, how do they work?

7. What does protection against fire cost each person in the place where you live? To answer this question find out (1) the rate of insurance, (2) the total amount of property insured, (3) the cost of your fire department; then add the amount paid for insurance (How can you find it?) to the cost of the fire department and divide the sum by the population of your community. Does the quotient measure the total cost of fire protection to each person? (See pages 219-220.)

SECTION II. HOW FIRE-FIGHTING APPARATUS DEVELOPED

Medieval fire-fighting. In the Middle Ages fires were frequently thought to be the work of evil spirits. When a building burst out in flames, images and relics were sometimes brought out of the churches and carried up and down the streets to frighten away the fiends of the air and thus stop

the conflagration. Usually, however, leather buckets and hand syringes, or "hand squirts," were also employed.

A hand syringe was an instrument worked by three men, two of whom held the cylinder while a third operated the piston. Those who held the syringe dipped its nozzle into a bucket or tub of water, and the third man pulled the piston back, thus filling the cylinder. It was now aimed at the fire, and its contents were squirted on the flames. Since most of the syringes did not hold more than a gallon, they did not accomplish much in putting out serious fires. From such crude beginnings, however, there developed the modern steam fire engine.

Fire-fighting in colonial days. In very early times in America colonial villages and towns attempted as best they could to guard themselves against fire. In Salem, Massachusetts, as early as 1644, each householder was ordered under penalty of fine to have a ladder and buckets for use in case of fire. He was also required to have his chimneys cleaned regularly, since the accumulation of soot was an important cause of fire in those days. Throughout New England fire-fighting was directed by village officers called firewardens. They had the right to destroy buildings, if necessary, to prevent the spread of fire. All who helped in the work were volunteers: when the cry of fire was raised they dropped their tasks and hurried to the scene; there was no professional fire department.

The usual method of fighting fire in those days was to form two lines from the conflagration to the nearest well or stream. Up one line the full buckets were passed rapidly from hand to hand until the water could be thrown on the flames; the empty buckets were then returned down the dry line, which was usually made up of boys, to the source of the water supply.

Thus a constant supply of water was carried to the fire. If any person attempted to pass through the line or hinder the work he promptly got a bucketful or two of water poured over him.

When the fire was over, the firewarden took charge of the buckets; some hours later the owners appeared, each picked out his own buckets from the pile, carried them home, and hung them up by the front door, ready to be seized again for use at the next alarm of fire.¹

The first American fire companies. The first fire company or club in America was organized in New York City in colonial days, about the middle of the seventeenth century. It was called the Prowlers. It consisted of eight men. Their

GOING TO A FIRE

Horse-drawn fire engines are still in use in many communities. This unusual snapshot shows the company leaving the engine house at full speed within ten seconds after the alarm was rung in.

total equipment was two hundred and fifty buckets, some hooks, and a few small ladders. But they proved effective fire-fighters, judged by the standards of that day, and before long other towns also organized fire companies. Leading citizens took an active part in forming these clubs and, since they came to play a prominent part in the social and political life of the community, membership in them was eagerly sought. They did not limit their services to their own number, but turned out for any fire.

¹A. M. Earle, *Home Life in Colonial Days*, p. 17. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

The first fire engines. Fire engines, very crude in character, were first used by the ancient Egyptians. Centuries later they were introduced in certain parts of Europe. About 1650 one was made in America. These early engines were solid box affairs on wooden wheels. They had to be lifted around corners and were worked entirely by hand. As a rule they were supplied with water by lines of bucket-passers. They were little more than large squirting syringes. Roof fires were frequently put out by long-handled mops called swobs or swaps.

Down to the middle of the nineteenth century, in fact, fire apparatus remained simple and ineffective, and fire fighters willing but unskilled. About that time a crude steam engine was tried out in Cincinnati. It amazed the onlookers by throwing a stream of water a distance of one hundred and thirty feet. So successful did the city government consider the engine that it immediately ordered one from the makers. Since the machine required skilled operators to run it, experts had to be employed, and as a result Cincinnati for a time was the only city in the world which had a paid company which fought fire with the aid of steam. In spite of bitter opposition from volunteer firemen, steam fire engines and professional fire fighters were soon introduced in other cities. It is an interesting fact, however, that in some communities unpaid volunteers still form the basis of the local fire departments.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why did volunteer firemen oppose the use of steam fire engines? Was their opposition based on reasons like those which have frequently caused workmen to object to the use of labor-saving machinery?

2. Find out all you can about the history of the fire department in your city; if you live in a rural community or a village investigate its means of fire protection and how they developed. Suggest ways of improving fire protection in your community.

SECTION III. MODERN FIRE-FIGHTING APPARATUS

The modern fire engine. The great service of the modern fire engine is to furnish the firemen with a strong, steady stream of water. This is necessary because in most cities the force of the water, as it comes from ordinary hydrants,

AT THE FIRE

A fire engine is a pump on wheels operated, as a rule, by steam or gasoline. It furnishes the power which is necessary to throw a heavy stream of water the distance ordinarily required to fight fire effectively.

is too weak for fighting a fire—it will not go far enough. By its pumps, however, a fire or gas engine increases the pressure so that a large stream can be sent hundreds of feet. The stream of water from a modern fire hose is so powerful, in fact, that it will tear the clapboards off the building, demolish a strong door, and even penetrate a brick wall. In times of riot or public disorder fire departments armed with this powerful apparatus have on more than one occasion given most valuable assistance to the police. In the

commercial and industrial quarters of large cities there are usually installed high-pressure systems through which the water is forced through special water mains to special fire plugs by steam or gas engines at the pumping stations. From these high-pressure plugs, streams of water can be thrown to a height of more than two hundred feet.

Chemical engines. Fires will die out if deprived of oxygen. Chemicals which will drive oxygen away have therefore been

A WATER TOWER

By means of the water tower it is possible for firemen to extinguish fires at a height which they could not reach effectively with ordinary apparatus.

used widely in fighting fire, especially in putting out small blazes. Motor chemical engines which can be handled easily by two or three men are used for this work. They are especially serviceable where quick action is necessary.

In San Diego, California, the fire department has a small chemical engine mounted on a seaplane. In case a fire breaks out on the water front it flies to the scene at a rate of seventy-five miles an hour. Where chemical engines have been introduced, they have been used to put out three fourths of the fires. With their use the damage to furniture and buildings caused by streams of water is largely avoided.

Water tower. One of the most interesting and valuable pieces of apparatus in the fire departments of large cities is the water tower. It was developed to fight fire in high buildings. It consists of an iron pipe within a slender steel derrick placed on one end of an automobile truck in such a way that it can be raised to an upright position when the scene of the fire is reached; arranged like a telescope, the tower can be extended from sixty to seventy feet or even higher. At the upper end is a nozzle through which a large stream of water is forced. In this way water can be thrown through the upper windows of a burning building directly upon the fire. This makes it possible to put out the flames much more quickly than when water is thrown from the street against the ceiling or walls. In fighting fire in a skyscraper twenty or thirty stories in height, however, the water tower is of little service, and chief reliance is then placed on sprinkler systems and extinguishers within the building.

A MEMBER OF THE SMOKE SQUAD

With a smoke helmet and an oxygen tank a fireman is able to enter a smoke-filled building and rescue persons or save valuable property. The life line tied to his right arm is used for signaling and for finding the way out.

Fire boat. One of the most destructive fires New York ever experienced had its origin in a building on the water front. Although the firemen could attack the shore side, they could not reach effectively the water side. Difficulties

like these led to the development of the fire boat, which, at the present time, is the greatest fire extinguisher in existence. Equipped with large steel nozzles $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter and supplied with powerful engines, it can throw as much water on a blaze as can a dozen land engines. Standpipes on the newer fire boats enable them to share the advantage of

BROUGHT BACK TO LIFE

The pulmotor is a machine for supplying oxygen and producing artificial respiration in persons overcome by smoke, gas, electric shock, or drowning. The pictures shows the pulmotor squad of the gas company attempting to revive a man rescued from a gas-filled building. Persons apparently dead ~~are~~ sometimes brought back to life by the pulmotor.

the water tower, since through the standpipes they can directly attack a fire in the second or third story of a building. Since fire boats carry hundreds of feet of hose, they can give effective help in fighting land fires.

In addition to fire and chemical engines, hose wagon, hook-and-ladder truck, water tower, and fire boat, a well-equipped fire department usually has strong searchlights to assist in fighting fires at night; scaling ladders and pulmotors to be used in saving life; circular jumping-nets made of small ropes to catch those whose only chance is a leap from

a burning building; life guns, by which a cord can be shot over the roof of a high building; and gas masks, pikes, axes, and roof cutters. In methods and equipment fire-fighting has made enormous strides since the days of the volunteer and the hand squirt.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Visit your nearest fire-department station and find out, if you can, how its equipment compares with that mentioned in the last paragraph of this section.

2. Is there a high-pressure system in your city? If so, in what sections? (Find out these facts at a fire station and locate the high-pressure sections on a map of the city.)

SECTION IV. THE ORGANIZATION AND WORK OF MODERN FIRE DEPARTMENTS

Military organization. When a great fire is raging the safety of the entire community depends on the promptness, courage, and efficiency with which firemen obey orders. Hence, although much more is left to the judgment of an individual fireman than is usually left to a private soldier, firemen, like policemen, are under military discipline and in general are organized like an army.

At the head of the fire department, as a rule, there is a marshal or chief. Below him, ranked in order, are deputies or assistants, battalion chiefs, captains, lieutenants, and firemen of different grades. As in the case of the police, and for similar reasons, the chief authority over the fire department is in the hands of a commissioner who is rarely a professional fireman.

The larger cities in the United States are divided for fire protection into districts. The firemen in a district are organized into companies of from six to twelve men; each company is commanded by a captain and a lieutenant. A number of companies form a battalion, which is under the authority

of a battalion chief. The battalion chiefs are responsible to a deputy marshal, who is over the entire district and who in turn is responsible to the marshal. In this way responsibility for the conduct of the men and the condition of the apparatus can always be fixed and efficiency secured.

Duties of firemen. It is the duty of officers and firemen to inspect factories, warehouses, and large buildings in order to see that fire regulations are obeyed and to become familiar with the edifices in which they may need to fight fires. Within a year after such an inspection system had been put in operation in Philadelphia, more than one hundred thousand dangerous conditions had been remedied.¹ Pipemen and truckmen, who correspond in rank to police patrolmen or to privates in the army,

are required to keep all apparatus clean and bright and in first-class working order. When not on leave of absence or on duty at a fire, the members of a company must eat,

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FIRE-MAP DEVICE

At the Boston Fire Headquarters an ingenious map is used by which any piece of apparatus in the city can be located at any time. Hooks on the map represent fire stations, and colored disks representing the different pieces of apparatus are moved about on the map as the apparatus responds to fire alarms.

¹J. L. Barnard and J. C. Evans, *Citizenship in Philadelphia*, p. 106.

sleep, and live at the engine house. At night they arrange their clothes so that they can jump into them at once in case of an alarm. In the saving of property, firemen in large cities are ably assisted by bodies of men known as the "Insurance Patrol," who are employed by insurance companies.

FIGHTING A BIG FIRE

This is a vivid view of firemen fighting an oil tank fire at the water front where water boats were not available. The fire engine is a makeshift, consisting of an old-fashioned steam engine attached to a tractor. What is the man in the center of the picture doing?

Fire-alarm systems. Most cities have electric fire-alarm systems much like those used by the police. All one needs to do in order to call the department is to turn a crank or pull a lever in one of the street signal boxes placed every few hundred feet throughout the city. The alarm is immediately received at the central fire station and is sent at once to the local station nearest the fire. Here a gong sounds the alarm, and the company is off to the fire in less than a minute.

Fire-department positions. Positions in the fire department, with very few exceptions, can be secured only through a civil-service examination which tests the physical qualifications of a man as well as his intelligence. After passing this examination an applicant is accepted on trial. He must now take a course of instruction in the giving of first aid to the injured and in the use of fire-fighting apparatus; he must also show his steadiness of nerve by climbing high buildings with a scaling ladder, by jumping into the life net from third-story windows, and by other perilous feats common to firemen. If he is successful in these tests he becomes a regular member of the force. Promotion depends almost entirely on his ability and on his faithfulness in service.

Heroism of firemen. No men are more fearless and more efficient than the men in American fire departments. Every city has stories of its fire heroes. Such a hero was Captain Ahearn, a member of the New York City force, who on one occasion led his company to a dangerous fire on the East Side.

Far towards the rear, at the end of a narrow lane, around which the fire swirled and arched itself, white and wicked, lay the body of a man—dead, said the panic-stricken crowd. There were underground reservoirs of naphtha that might explode at any moment with the fire raging overhead. The peril was instant and great. Captain Ahearn looked at the body, and saw it stir. The watch-chain upon the man's vest rose and fell as if he were breathing.

"He is not dead," he said. "I am going to get that man out." And he crept down the lane of fire, unmindful of the hidden dangers, seeing only the man who was perishing. The flames scorched him; they blocked his way; but he came through alive, and brought out his man.

Within a year he all but lost his life in a gallant attempt to save the life of a child that was supposed to be penned in a burning tenement. Chief Ahearn was first on the ground. A desperate man confronted him in the hallway. "My child! my child!" he cried, and wrung his hands. "Save him! he is in there!" He pointed to the back room. It was black with smoke. In the front room the fire was raging. Crawling on hands and

feet, the chief made his way into the room the man had pointed out. He groped under the bed, and in it, but found no child there. Satisfied that it had escaped, he started to return. The smoke had grown so thick that breathing was no longer possible, even at the floor. The chief drew his coat over his head and made a dash for the hall door. He reached it only to find that the spring

ICE-COVERED FIRE APPARATUS

In zero weather it becomes almost impossible to handle the ice-covered apparatus at a big fire. Unfortunately, it is at this very time that most fires occur, owing to the overheating of stoves and furnaces and the placing of hot ashes and cinders in wooden boxes or barrels, near piles of rubbish, or on floors which lack proper protection.

lock had snapped shut. The doorknob burned his hand. The fire burst through from the front room and seared his face. With a last effort he kicked the lower panel out of the door and put his head through. And then he knew no more. His men found him lying so when they came looking for him. The coat was burned off his back, and of his hat only the wire rim remained. He lay ten months in the hospital and came out deaf and wrecked physically. At the age of forty-five the board retired him.¹

¹Abridged from Jacob A. Riis, "Heroes who fight Fires," *Century Magazine*, Vol. XXXIII, pp. 485-486.

Rural fire protection. Better fire protection is greatly needed in rural communities. In California, for example, the average annual loss from the destruction of standing grain and hay by fire has been for years about a quarter of a million dollars. These fires are caused chiefly by the sparks from harvesting machinery and passing locomotives. Ninety per cent of them could be prevented by the use of spark arresters and of chemical fire extinguishers. In certain counties well-organized and well-equipped fire companies save the farmers thousands of dollars every year.

A FOREST FIRE

Many forest fires, which destroy thousands of dollars' worth of timber every day, are caused by careless campers and hunters who fail to extinguish their fires thoroughly when breaking camp. Someone has said, "One tree will make a million matches, and one match will destroy a million trees."

Forest fires too are very destructive. In Minnesota alone during a recent year they destroyed more than \$35,000,000 worth of property and cost the lives of hundreds of people. Whole counties of forests were burned to the ground and town after town was wiped out of existence. Forest fires are usually caused by lightning, by the sparks from passing locomotives, and by careless campers and hunters. Good etiquette, as every Boy Scout knows, requires that those who use the woods see that their fires are entirely extinguished

before they break camp. Proper precautions in lumbering so as to prevent the piling up of brush heaps, greater care in putting out sparks and embers by users of the woods, and screened smokestacks on locomotives, if combined with a watchful state police or vigilant forest wardens, would reduce the loss from forest fires to probably one tenth its present size.

DESTRUCTION BY FOREST FIRES

In addition to the timber loss caused by forest fires the soil itself is so injured that sometimes many years go by before anything can be grown upon it. Meanwhile the treeless soil is frequently washed away by heavy rains or the quick melting of the snow, the mountain or hillside becomes a waste, and in the lowlands floods occur which are disastrous to crops, buildings, and people.

State fire protection. Two thirds of the states now have fire marshals, whose duty is to investigate the causes of fires, publish their findings, inspect city fire departments, and prevent or destroy conditions likely to cause conflagrations.

Wisconsin has two fire-fighting agencies: (1) a state fire marshal, who, with his assistants, investigates suspicious fires and aids in the prosecution of persons accused of arson; (2) the fire-prevention department of the Industrial Commission, which studies the causes of fires and the methods

of preventing them. The commission assists in the enforcement of fire regulations throughout the state, supervises the inspection of the three hundred and forty fire departments in Wisconsin and aids in establishing new ones, prepares building regulations and issues fire-prevention orders to help local fire departments in their inspection work, and sends out bulletins and pamphlets written in simple language to educate the people in avoiding fire waste.¹

Outside of its fire regulations and precautions in the national forest reserves and in federal buildings, ships, and army camps, the national government takes little part in the war on fire.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How can a man become a fireman in your city? What salary will he receive as pipeman or truckman?

2. Who determines the fire regulations in your community? What are some of the most important rules? Who sees that they are obeyed?

3. Is the fire department in your city under civilian control? Explain.

4. What was the bravest deed ever done by a member of the fire department of your city? (Make inquiries among relatives acquaintances, or firemen.)

5. How long does it take you to dress in the morning? Find out at the fire station how long it takes a fireman to get into his clothes when there is an alarm.

6. Describe the fire-alarm system of your town or city. How should you send in an alarm in case of fire?

7. How are rural regions in your county protected against fire?

8. Compare the fire-fighting agencies of your state government with those of Wisconsin. Which are the better?

9. How do forest fires affect the soil? What means of protection against forest fires are there in your state?

10. Find out what you can about the work of the United States Forest Service.

¹*American City*, Vol. XIX, p. 137.

SECTION V. HOW TO PREVENT FIRES

American army camps. When the United States decided to build sixteen cities of wood to house the new national army in 1917 and 1918, fire-insurance experts at once saw danger in the plan. Eager to help win the war, they volunteered their services in laying out the camps in such manner as to reduce, so far as possible, the chances of fire which would come from careless cooks and smokers. Every few hundred yards wide spaces or "firebreaks" were left between the buildings; an ample water supply was established; each building was provided with fire buckets and other fire-fighting apparatus; fire companies were carefully drilled; and all electric wires and heating plants were scientifically installed. As a result practically no loss from fire occurred in any army camp.¹

Laws punishing carelessness. If equal pains were taken in civil life, fire losses would largely disappear. Laws punishing carelessness might work wonders. In European countries the man whose property burns because of his carelessness or neglect is looked upon as a criminal. If his carelessness causes injury to his neighbor he is required to pay for the damage so far as he can, and, in addition, he is sometimes fined and imprisoned. As a result, fires caused by carelessness are practically unknown. Of course laws are always of little value unless the community wants them and demands their enforcement.

Means of preventing fires. Boys and girls can do much to lessen the number of fires. By care with matches, bonfires, kerosene, gasoline, and by removing rubbish and other fire producers, they can help to reduce fire losses to a fraction of their present extent. In case of fire it is important not to let yourself become panic-stricken, but to observe "such simple precautions as closing the windows to cut off the draft,

¹ *American City*, Vol. XIX, pp. 372-374.

keeping close to the floor to avoid smoke, and covering the head with a damp cloth when passing through smoke-filled rooms."¹

Here are some of the ways the National Fire Board gives for guarding one's home against fire. Have a screen before an open fire. Do not dry clothing too close to the stove. Tie up old papers and sell them. Never put ashes in wooden barrels or boxes. Keep oily rags in metal cans. Never let rubbish accumulate. Put out every spark when leaving open fires. The *Fire Prevention Manual* of the Bureau of Education says:

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FIRE DANGER IN AN ALLEY

Rubbish such as the inspector has just discovered is a common cause of fire. A spark from a passing locomotive, a lighted cigarette-end dropped by a passer-by, or even spontaneous combustion may start a blaze which may end in the destruction of the adjoining buildings. No good citizen should allow such litter to accumulate on or around his premises. In many communities neglect of this sort is punishable by fine or imprisonment, or both.

When we come to the question of fire prevention, there are three main points to consider: first, a good citizen will try in every way to avoid being a cause of danger through permitting any of the practices that we have been warned about; second, he will remove all dangerous conditions that he may find in his own home; and, third, he will train himself to recognize dangerous conditions

in the community and will use his influence both to have them removed and to educate others to habits of carefulness.

¹ J. L. Barnard and J. C. Evans, *Citizenship in Philadelphia*, p. 103.

Summary. The buildings which are destroyed by fire in a single year in our country would line both sides of a street extending from New York to Chicago. This enormous loss must be paid for by all of us in the form of higher prices. In this way fire insurance is a tax. In early days fire-fighting was carried on with crude apparatus and by unskilled volunteers. The invention of the steam fire engine, however, made necessary the employment of professional fire fighters and thus led to the development, in time, of the well-equipped fire departments of today. A modern fire force, like an army, is organized with a chief at its head; like the police, it is usually under civilian control. It is generally composed of efficient and heroic men. In rural communities and in forested areas better fire protection is greatly needed. If proper safeguards were established in the way of adequate local and state fire-fighting agencies, if suitable laws regulating

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A FIRE INSPECTOR SOLICITING THE HELP
OF CHILDREN

In crowded tenements there is great temptation to use the fire escapes for drying clothes, for gardening in boxes and flowerpots, and for storing washtubs and all sorts of articles. By asking the children to help keep the fire escapes clear this inspector is better able to reach many parents who cannot speak English, and to secure their cooperation in observing fire regulations.

the construction of buildings and punishing carelessness were passed and enforced, and if greater care with matches, kerosene, rubbish, electrical appliances, and other fire producers were exercised fire losses would largely disappear.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is arson? How is it punished in your state? Why is it punished so severely?
2. In your opinion how should hunters, campers, and picnickers build and leave fires?
3. A person who breaks his neighbor's window must pay for it; should one whose carelessness causes his neighbor's house to burn to the ground be compelled to pay for the damage?
4. What can your class or school do to prevent fires in your community? What can you do?
5. What should you do if a fire broke out in your home or neighborhood?
6. What should you do if your clothing caught fire? How should you act in a theater or assembly room in case of fire?

QUESTION FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that persons who cause destructive fires by carelessness should be punished by fine and imprisonment.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

Fire-Prevention Day in our Community
 Disastrous Fires in my Community
 A Sane Fourth
 How Fire Insurance Originated
 The Aërial Forest Patrol
 Fire Drill in our School

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CHAPTER X

RECREATION

Work and Play are the team that help Youth to the summit of the hill called Success.—ANONYMOUS

A city that does not provide suitable places for its citizens and coming citizens to care for their physical selves will be called upon to provide additional police stations, jails, and hospitals.—E. B. MERO

SECTION I. WHY WE NEED PLAY AND RECREATION

Monotony of factory labor. In a modern furniture factory, it is said, a girl takes a square piece of wood, sandpapers it, and passes it on to the next girl at her left; this girl places it under a machine, which bores a number of holes in it, and then pushes it on to another girl; the third girl, in turn, makes some slight change before passing it on to the next girl. Hour after hour the work goes on; each girl repeats her act in the same unchanging, monotonous way throughout the day, year in, year out. Most workers in shoe plants, cotton mills, brickworks, or box factories have a similar grind: not to make the whole of anything, never to feel that the finished product is the result of their own individual labor—such is the lot of the great mass of factory workers of today.

It was very different in the days of George Washington. Then a cobbler did all the work in making a pair of shoes from the cutting of the leather to the driving of the pegs. The same was true to a great extent of the weaver, the smith, the printer, and the box-maker. In such work there was an appeal to the pride of the worker akin to the joy of the artist. If hours were long and toil was hard, the work at least had little of the deadly dullness of modern machine industry.

A workman who makes a whole watch can acquire such love for his work as makes him an artist; but who can learn to love the mere routine of putting metal discs under the face of a die for ten hours a day? "It is," as one writer has well said, "a sad thing for a man to have to testify that he has never made more than the eighteenth part of a pin."¹

Partly in order to relieve the monotony of factory toil, there is today a need for recreation greater than existed in times past. The nervous strain and depression which come from working at high speed in hot, dusty rooms, amid the whirl of swiftly moving machinery, at uninteresting tasks, require in a very special

MONOTONOUS FACTORY WORK

Day in and day out these girls pack paper boxes. In an effort to relieve this monotony the firm has set aside intervals during the day when the girls, with a director, sing familiar songs.

sense the relief which comes from amusement. Mind and body feel a hunger for change and relaxation similar to that felt for food, sleep, and rest.

Need for recreation increased by eight-hour day and prohibition. While the rapid extension of the eight-hour working day with a half day off on Saturday has helped lighten the tedious toil in the factory, it has increased the need for recreation facilities; with a liberal allowance for sleep and

¹R. T. Ely and G. R. Wicker, *Elementary Principles of Economics*, p. 166.

meals, there still remain from forty to forty-five hours a week for play. National prohibition has also increased this need, because the closing of the saloon has deprived large numbers of men of a meeting place which in the past frequently served as a sort of clubhouse. A place for friendly gatherings, free from the evils of the saloon, is thus made necessary for those who formerly found it a social center.

BRIGHTENING FACTORY TOIL

Books, magazines, a pleasant reading-room, and rest periods during the day are furnished by this firm for its employees.

Need for play not limited to laborers. The need for play is not limited to laborers. Business men, professional experts, women in the home, also need recreation, for it is not in the making of cloth, shoes, and boxes alone that great changes have occurred. In former days physicians spent much of their time out of doors while going to see their patients; now many of them are specialists who confine their practice largely to office or hospital. Even those who call on their patients usually go in automobiles, which carry them swiftly from home to home. To a less extent a similar

change has come about in the work of the lawyer, the banker, and the merchant. Persons engaged in these occupations nowadays have consequently a greater need for recreation than was the case a few decades ago before the activities of the workaday world became so highly specialized.

But it is with the children, perhaps, that the greatest need exists. Two generations ago school was in session for only three or four months; during the rest of the year the children helped in the house, shop, or field. Today school continues for nine or ten months; when it is not in session city children, at least, have little or no work to do in the crowded tenements or steam-heated apartments in which they live. Since most states have laws forbidding the employment of children in factories, mines, or stores, the youngsters whose parents cannot afford to send them

GUTTER URCHINS

Neglected and dirty, these little ones have only the street for a playground.

to summer camps or resorts during vacation have nothing to do in the long summer days. And the old adage that the devil finds work for idle hands is as true today as when first uttered.

Educational value of play. But it is not merely, or chiefly, because of changes in industry and school nor to provide exercise or prevent wrongdoing that recreation is needed. Play makes life sweeter, happier, better. It is also one of the greatest educators.

It is through its practice in springing upon rolling balls and flying leaves that the kitten has always trained itself to catch mice. The puppy, in his games of tag and playful fighting, has got the practice which enables him later to be a successful hunter. The little girl plays with her doll. She dresses it; she undresses it and puts it to bed; she administers first aid; she gives it all sorts of wonderful medicines, and who shall say that this training is not as good a preparation for her life as housewife and mother as the rules of syntax or the history of Greece.¹

LOAFERS

Such a good-natured crowd as this seems to be deserves a better place for its fun than a street corner.

The qualities of character developed on the playground—self-control, courage, endurance, loyalty—led the Duke of Wellington to say many years ago, "Waterloo was won on the football field of Rugby."

Popular demand for recreation. Take a daily newspaper and count the columns devoted to baseball, football, tennis, golf, the theater, books, the "movies," sports, and amusements of various kinds. With occasional exceptions you will find that they exceed those devoted to any other topic. This is but one indication of the popular interest in recreation.

¹ From H. S. Curtis's "The Play Movement and its Significance," p. 1. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

Now the expense of playgrounds and play equipment makes it impossible, of course, for the great majority of people as individuals to own suitable means of outdoor recreation. It is only through their combined action as a community that these needs can be met. Fortunately many communities recognize this fact and have met the popular demand for physical relaxation by providing playgrounds, athletic fields, parks, and swimming-beaches, where everyone may obtain healthful and interesting recreation at little or no cost. For mental diversion and instruction they have also established in numerous instances museums, libraries, concert halls, and art galleries.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give an illustration of the monotony of modern methods of work not mentioned in the text. If modern labor is so uninteresting, why do we not return to the industrial methods of former days?
2. What is recreation? Give three reasons why recreation is needed more now than in years gone by. Name an amusement which is not a recreation; a recreation which is not an amusement.
3. Give examples of things you have learned through play.
4. Why should the community furnish facilities for recreation? Should a charge be made for their use? Give reasons.
5. In your local newspapers count the column inches which are devoted to the following five topics: business, politics, foreign affairs, crime and scandal, and recreation. Omit altogether the advertising matter. Express your findings in terms of per cent of the entire portion of the paper devoted to news. Let different pupils take different papers or different issues of the same paper. Rank the topics in the order of their importance as shown by the investigation. What conclusions can be drawn from the outcome?
6. Play is something we do for its own sake; work is anything we do for the sake of something else. Explain and illustrate.
7. What is work for one person is play for another. Explain and give examples.
8. All the time we do not spend sleeping, eating, or working, is playtime. Make a schedule showing how you spend your time.

SECTION II. HISTORICAL SKETCH OF PLAY

Organized play among primitive peoples. Primitive peoples have always given a large place in their community life to organized play. Through games and ceremonies the boys are taught to hunt and fish and are initiated into the traditions and secrets of the tribe; in a somewhat similar way the girls learn many household duties and domestic arts. In ancient Persia, Athens, Sparta, and Rome games and athletic sports also occupied a most important place in education and religion.

Playground movement in America. In our own country, in colonial days, Boston Common served not only as a common pasture for cows and geese but as a place where men and boys gathered to play a rude kind of baseball and to join in other sports. Two hundred years later (1868) it was in one of the school yards of Boston that the first organized playground in America was opened. Although a number of other playgrounds were also established in the city a few years afterwards, the movement seems to have attracted slight notice; and it was not until 1898, when New York opened thirty-one playgrounds, that the undertaking was copied by other communities. Since that time progress has been rapid throughout the country; today there are over five hundred cities which maintain public playgrounds.

Especially active in the playground movement has been the Playground and Recreation Association of America. This is a private organization, formed in 1906, composed of men and women who for years had seen the need of recreation facilities and who have stirred up public sentiment for them in many communities. Such enterprises, however, have usually originated in some local civic or woman's club which by its persistence finally awakened the community to the need of providing recreation for the neighborhood.

State action. Various states have helped to promote recreation. In some instances they have established state parks

or state forest preserves which can be used for camping and picnicking. They have also aided the building of good roads. Some states have, in addition, passed laws establishing play and physical training in the schools. Massachusetts,

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THE GRAND CANYON

The Grand Canyon of the Colorado was recently made a national park. It is from eight to twenty miles in width and in certain places is more than a mile in depth. Colored in all the gorgeous hues of the rainbow, it is considered one of nature's most majestic spectacles. "Of its own kind," according to a government bulletin, "there is nothing in the world which approaches it in form, size, and glowing color."

for example, requires every city of ten thousand inhabitants to "maintain at least one public playground conveniently located and of suitable size and equipment for the recreation and physical education" of the children and young people of the community. In Illinois one hour a week must be given in the elementary schools to some kind of physical training. New York requires a minimum of one hour and forty minutes

of physical training for all school children eight years of age and over. Under this law half the salary of the physical directors is paid by the state, half by the local community. Supervision of the work is by the State Superintendent of Schools, assisted by a deputy commissioner of recreation. These provisions make New York one of the leading states in the Union in promoting physical education and recreation.

National parks. Many national parks distinguished for their grandeur of scenery and their generous extent have been established in various parts of the country by the United States government. One of the most beautiful of these is the magnificent Yellowstone Park in Wyoming, Montana, and Idaho. This park contains over two million acres and is noted for its stately mountains, picturesque lakes, beautiful waterfalls, and numerous geysers. It also contains the largest and most varied assortment of wild animals in the world. Thousands of tourists visit it every year. Yosemite Park in California and Glacier Park in Montana are among the other notable parks of the country. By free illustrated lectures the Department of the Interior, under whose supervision the parks are placed, has tried to inform the people in an interesting way about the attractions of these national recreation grounds.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Describe the games and amusements of one of the following: Spartans; Athenians; Romans; Hindus; Chinese; French; Japanese; Indians; American colonists; American frontiersmen; South Sea islanders. Of what educational value was their recreation?

*The Yosemite National Park, in middle-eastern California, is noted for big trees, lofty cliffs, trout fishing, and waterfalls of extraordinary height and beauty. The Yosemite Falls, shown in the picture, "drop 1430 feet in one sheer fall, a height equal to nine Niagara Falls piled one on top of the other. The Lower Yosemite Fall, immediately below, has a drop of 320 feet, or two Niagaras more."

YOSEMITE FALLS*

© E. M. Newman

2. Does your state have any law requiring play or physical education in the schools? If so, what are its main provisions?

3. Report on one of the following national parks: Crater Lake, Oregon; Grand Canyon, Arizona; Glacier, Montana; Hawaii, Hawaii; Mount Rainier, Washington; Rocky Mountain, Colorado; Sequoia, California; Yellowstone, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho; Yosemite, California (see reading-list).

4. What are the national monuments? Describe one of them. See Frank A. Waugh, "Why is a National Monument?" in *Outlook* (September 28, 1921), Vol. CXXIX, pp. 130-132.

SECTION III. RECREATION IN THE CITY

Playgrounds. The city of Gary, Indiana, has been a leader in furnishing opportunities for play for its boys and girls. Most of its schools have from ten to twenty acres of ground which, in addition to furnishing room for school gardens and small parks, give plenty of space for playgrounds and athletic fields.

Games are carried on with the help of the teachers. By this arrangement weak and sickly children, who especially need exercise but who frequently are elbowed out of the game or bullied by older or stronger children, enter into the play and receive great benefit from it. A schedule of contests in baseball, volley ball, tennis, and basketball, especially among the older pupils, adds interest to the games. In some schools the winners of these contests are honored with the school letter. For tournaments it has usually not been difficult to secure simple but attractive trophies. In a few schools all pupils who attain a certain record in various athletic events are given a distinctive pin or button. For a number of years the pupils have made all the equipment used on the playgrounds.

A few investigations have been made of the effects of introducing organized play. In Chicago a decrease of almost 50 per cent in the number of crimes committed by children occurred. Other factors than organized play entered into the

matter, of course, so that this reduction cannot be regarded as caused entirely by the introduction of play facilities.

Organized play has usually been followed by improvement in health and physical development. In a German city absence from school because of sickness was reduced

PLAYGROUND FUN

Springboards, swings, trapezes, and other gymnastic apparatus are furnished in abundance on this boys' playground.

nearly one half. Before organized play was started in Washington, D.C., the Public School Athletic League test for boys under thirteen was tried on a large number of boys in an effort to secure some accurate statistics. This test is to broad-jump 5 feet 9 inches standing, chin a bar four times, and run 60 yards in eight seconds. Not one boy could do these three things. Four years later five hundred boys did all of them. The records also show that organized play at school causes children to be more regular in attendance and helps them to do better work in the classroom.¹

¹H. S. Curtis, *The Play Movement and its Significance*, p. 292.

Oakland, California, has probably the most beautiful playgrounds in the United States, if not in the world. These grounds are surrounded by wire fences covered with ivy, honeysuckle, or roses, and in most instances contain magnificent trees and an abundance of flowers. Opportunities for

MAY DAY IN OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

In this natural amphitheater thousands of children and older folk gather on May Day. Singing, dancing, games, and the Maypole are common features.

What holidays are celebrated by your community?

all sorts of games are provided. Children and adults alike come to the playgrounds in large numbers. In a recent track meet of the schoolboys of Oakland sixteen hundred boys took part. In 1915 the average eighth-grade boy could broad-jump 11 feet $7\frac{3}{16}$ inches; in 1916 the average eighth-grader had raised the mark to 12 feet $3\frac{3}{16}$ inches; he could also jump two inches higher, run faster, and had greater endurance.

Chicago has also been a leader in establishing playgrounds, usually in connection with its public parks. In the large

parks there are golf links, baseball fields, tennis courts, archery ranges, and opportunities for rowing and swimming in summer and for skating in winter. For the little folks there are children's playgrounds containing the usual equipment. Probably no city in the country has such beautiful

FUN IN THE WATER

Nothing is more enjoyable on a hot summer's day than a plunge into the water. Most communities have now provided free bathing beaches for the use of their citizens. What opportunities are furnished in your town?

and expensive field houses. These buildings usually contain gymnasiums, swimming-pools, an auditorium or dance hall, clubrooms, and a library and reading-room. In lighting the grounds in the evening and in furnishing opportunities for play during the winter, Chicago has been a pioneer.

Public parks. What a yard is to a home, a public park is to a city. Since more and more city people now dwell in large apartment buildings and therefore have no yards to use, the public park offers almost their only chance to romp

on the grass or sit under the trees. In 1893 the leaders of Coxey's army were arrested in Washington for trampling the grass in the Capitol yards, but nowadays we regard parks as places to be used and not merely seen. The "Keep off the

A DOWN-TOWN PLAYGROUND

The Battery, at the southern end of Manhattan Island, is the down-town playground of New York City.

grass" signs so common a few years ago have largely vanished, and children and older people as a rule are allowed to use the lawn as much as they like. We now believe it is much better for the grass to become yellow under the children's feet than to grow green over their graves. As a matter of fact, when means are taken to prevent the wearing of paths, a reasonable use of the lawn does it no injury.

Well-equipped parks are supplied with play facilities for both grown-ups and children. The renting at a low price of

boats, tennis rackets and balls, and other equipment has worked well where it has been tried. In St. Louis an immense swimming-pool 450 feet long by 300 feet broad draws twelve thousand bathers daily. Swimming is very popular, and if dressing-booths were set up in the parks a thousand people would use the water for swimming where ten now use it for boating.

City lots and streets. When there are four or five hundred children to the block, as in the crowded sections of our great cities, it is difficult to find suitable places near their homes where they can play. The municipal and school playgrounds have helped solve the problem. Vacant city lots should also be utilized. Usually there is no difficulty in securing the owner's consent to fit up a vacant lot as a tennis court or baseball diamond, or to equip it with swings and sandbins for little children. In addition, since in residence districts little use is made of the streets for business purposes during certain hours of the day, there is no good reason why these streets should not be used at such times by children and older people for play, sports, and dancing. In fact, in some cities certain streets are roped off by the police during a part of the day to furnish a place for recreation, and no serious inconvenience has followed.

To fit the streets for play they should be paved with cement, asphalt, or creosote blocks, so as to give a smooth surface for roller skating and dancing. They should, in the second place, be lined with shade trees; trees cost little and give much, for they reduce the summer's heat, lessen disease, and add to the beauty of the city. Washington has over 80,000 trees; Paris, over 100,000. In the third place, the streets should be thoroughly cleaned for play as well as for traffic.

Community centers and social-settlement houses. In many cities school buildings are used by the community as social centers. In the evenings lecture courses, musical entertainments, motion-picture shows, exhibitions, and social gatherings are held, and large numbers of people, in addition to

finding convenient and economical amusement, form friendships with their neighbors and come to feel a real interest in their community.

Back of the stockyards in one of the most crowded tenement districts in Chicago stands an old mansion known

HULL HOUSE

Originating in an old homestead, Hull House settlement now comprises a group of buildings which occupy most of one block. During the winter months nine thousand people a week attend meetings here. In addition to the social, musical, and athletic groups of varied nationalities which assemble here, there are classes in literature, history, mathematics, typewriting, drawing, and domestic arts. Especially popular with the boys are the Whittling Club, the Chess Club, the Boys' Band, the Camera Club, and the athletic tournaments.

the world over as Hull House. It represents the efforts of Jane Addams and her assistants to provide an attractive place where the people of the neighborhood may find a hearty welcome and have a pleasant time reading, talking, or playing. It is one of the most famous social settlements in the world.

In a well-organized social settlement there is usually a director or head worker who makes her home in the settlement building and directs its affairs. A number of assistants—usually college students or graduates—visit the people in the neighborhood in a friendly way, aid them in time of

BOYS' READING-ROOM IN A SETTLEMENT HOUSE

These lads have been lured from the streets and alleys by the fascination of the world of books. The boy who has sought hidden treasure with Robert Louis Stevenson, or lived on a lonely island with Robinson Crusoe, or fought lions and tigers in Africa with Theodore Roosevelt, or adventured with Huckleberry Finn and Tom Sawyer, has discovered a source of recreation and pleasure of which he will never weary.

trouble with sympathy and advice, and interest them in the settlement house. These assistants as a rule receive no salary; in fact, they usually pay their own expenses.

The chief purpose of the settlement house is to serve as a social and educational home for the neighborhood. Reading-rooms, smoking-parlors, auditoriums, and gymnasiums are provided where men, women, young people, and children may read, play games like chess or checkers, listen to lectures

or musical entertainments, engage in debates, take part in amateur theatricals, dance, or join in athletic sports. For those who wish to learn, instruction is given in music, dress-making, millinery, gardening, hygiene, and such subjects as history and English. There are also nurseries where mothers may leave their babies during the day, employment bureaus where jobs may be secured, and dispensaries where the sick can obtain medical attention. The social settlements have played an important part in promoting a friendly feeling between the rich and the poor and in giving thousands of people opportunities for education and recreation.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What has your community done to furnish playgrounds for children? Describe the playground equipment.

2. What kind of playgrounds has your school? What can the pupils do to improve its equipment? Can the school playgrounds be used at night? Should they be?

3. Which do you prefer—play directed by an older person or managed entirely by the players? Explain.

4. How many of the games mentioned in this section do you know how to play?

5. Can you pass the Public School Athletic League test mentioned on page 255?

6. Why do games have rules? Who may change the rules? Why is it necessary to have an umpire or referee in some games? What is meant by "playing fair"? If everyone played fair would it be necessary to have a referee? Are you sure?

7. What other activities besides games have rules? How can their rules be changed? Do they have "umpires" or "referees"? What does it mean to play fair in school work? in business? in the community?

8. Should the school furnish balls, bats, and other play equipment? Give reasons.

9. Are the streets of your community ever roped off for recreation purposes? Are they so needed? Are they suited for that purpose?

10. Which is better in a city—one large park or several small ones? Why?

11. Is there a social settlement in your community? If so, visit it and describe its activities.

SECTION IV. RECREATION FOR ALL

Municipal recreation. The best place to start municipal recreation, says one writer, is in a hall or auditorium such as most cities already own. It can be used for conventions, Chautauquas, plays, and, "if its floor is level, and the seats are not fastened permanently to it, for play festivals, for gymnastic or calisthenic exhibitions, for public balls, for roller skating, for band concerts, and for moving pictures. If such a hall were used three evenings a week for moving pictures, two evenings a week for roller skating or gymnastics, one evening a week for a public dance, and Sunday afternoon for a band concert or choral singing, a very slight admission fee would make the auditorium a source of profit, and it would be sure to add much to the social life of the city."¹

Free band concerts are now given every summer in Milwaukee, Denver, Houston, Chicago, and many other cities. Opera singers have proved a great attraction. During an eight weeks' season over two hundred thousand people attended the light operas given in the open-air municipal theater of St. Louis. Community singing is popular in many places. The celebration of national holidays on a large scale is also a growing custom. The Fourth of July, for example, is marked by parades, pageants, and public fireworks. Christmas is frequently observed by placing a large Christmas tree in some public square and by having community singing of Christmas carols led by a chorus or soloist.

¹From H. S. Curtis's "The Play Movement and its Significance," p. 111. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

Some cities also have pageants, which draw visitors from all parts of the country, while county fairs render a similar service to many rural communities. Examples of such displays are the Veiled Prophets in St. Louis, the Mardi Gras in New Orleans, the Knights of Pallas in Kansas City, the Aksarben in Omaha, and the Rodeo in Los Angeles. It is

PUBLIC TENNIS COURTS

The popularity of tennis with both boys and girls is increasing. There are few city parks now in which both clay and grass courts are not laid out.

not uncommon for over a hundred thousand people to attend the Rose Carnival in Pasadena, California, to see the hundreds of artistic floats and the many gorgeous displays in the three-mile parade. Outdoor theaters and stadiums, where plays, gymnastic spectacles, and concerts can be produced, have been built in Tacoma, San Diego, Los Angeles, and Portland. Chicago is planning a stadium which will seat one hundred thousand people. Enterprises like these do much to make people loyal to their communities.

Municipal piers. One of the promising developments in public recreation recently has been the municipal pier. New York has provided its people with a number of such recreation buildings along the water front. A few years ago

Chicago built a municipal pier which extends into Lake Michigan for a distance of three quarters of a mile. It is an enormous two-story building constructed of steel and concrete. In addition to its value for commerce, it gives recreation to hundreds of thousands of people yearly. At the outer end of the pier is an immense recreation building containing rooms where children can play, a merry-go-round, rest rooms, restaurants, and an auditorium with a seating capacity of four thousand, which is used for lectures, concerts, and dancing.

Roof gardens. In cities one of the greatest difficulties in providing means for recreation is the limit in space, since such a large part of the

land is occupied by buildings. In reality, of course, there is just as much space as before the buildings were erected, only it is higher up. There seems to be no good reason why the roofs of many large buildings should not be made into roof gardens beautified with flowers, shrubbery, and plants of all kinds and supplied with benches, swings, and

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OFF ON A HIKE

Equipped with tents, blankets, and cooking utensils, these boys are just starting on a cross-country hike. Trips like this on which the boys, under the guidance of an adult, are gone for a week or two are common in European countries and not infrequent in the western part of the United States. The hikers buy their food from farmers, cook their meals by the roadside, and spend the nights in barracks, schoolrooms, or tents at little or no expense.

playgrounds. In addition to the cool, fresh air which can be obtained there, a roof is frequently the only spot in a congested section where a touch of beauty can be secured.

Even an ugly slum section may be a fairyland when seen from the roofs by moonlight. The stars and the clouds and the great depth of the summer sky are no less beautiful from the roof of the tenement than they are from the mountains or the seashore. The sun rising over the housetops and sinking behind them in the west repeats again the world-old miracle. To the people of Eastern lands from Bible times to now the housetops have been the place of social gathering in the evening.¹

Theaters. In ancient Greece and Rome entertainment was provided for the people free or at a very low cost. The theaters were owned by the government, and the actors were state employees; the drama was regarded as essential to education and religion. In modern European countries the theater is also looked upon as a semipublic institution, in some instances being supported and controlled in part by the government. High-class plays and operas are produced which would have difficulty in securing a hearing if the theaters were privately owned. The low admission fee makes it possible for all to attend.

In our own country little has been done toward establishing municipal theaters. A few years ago a company of municipal players was organized in Northampton, Massachusetts, which is said to have given probably "the best repertoire of classical drama that has anywhere been played in America." But this is an isolated instance; in practically all communities, theaters and motion-picture houses are under private ownership.

Private and public ownership. Private control of recreation facilities has important advantages. It stimulates new amusements, leads to variety in old ones, and is usually

¹From H. S. Curtis's "The Play Movement and its Significance," p. 139. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

marked by greater care for the comfort of patrons than when means of recreation are owned by the government.

It also has serious disadvantages. Among these is the high charge frequently made for admission. According to one authority, writing in 1917, the price of admission to an ordinary motion-picture theater is extreme, for "a fair profit can

GOLF

Golf is no longer limited to those who can afford to belong to an expensive country club, for public parks in a steadily increasing number are now providing links open to anyone who cares to play.

be made from a public auditorium that seats five hundred or a thousand people at a charge of one cent."¹ Moreover, in spite of supervision by the National Board of Censors and local censors, many films produced in privately owned theaters show murders, divorces, shooting affrays, and other scenes which are dangerous to morals. Much the same situation exists in the theater, opera, dance halls, bowling-alleys, and skating-rinks. For these reasons some

¹From H. S. Curtis's "The Play Movement and its Significance," p. 110.

people believe that amusement facilities should be provided by the government. Others maintain that the best solution of the problem would be for the community to furnish the people clean recreation at cost and, at the same time, permit private enterprises under strict public control.

Summary. Owing to the monotony of modern-factory labor, the shortening of the working-day, the changes which have taken place in indoor occupations, and a fresh realization of the educational value of play, there is a greater need for means of recreation today than ever before. In response to this need many cities have provided playgrounds equipped with suitable apparatus; public parks with golf links, tennis courts, bathing-beaches, baseball fields, and gymnasiums; and roof gardens, community centers, and municipal piers, where concerts, lectures, motion-picture shows, dances, and social gatherings are held. More use should be made, however, of vacant city lots; certain residence streets should be reserved for play during portions of the day; and the roofs of large buildings, especially in congested districts, should be fitted up as roof gardens. Although many improvements in recreation have been made in recent years, there is still great need, especially in rural communities, for furnishing additional play facilities for children, wider opportunities for companionship for young people and adults, and more adequate means for clean amusements for all.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What private facilities for recreation are there in your community? What public ones? Are any additional ones needed?

2. Describe one of the local carnivals or pageants mentioned on page 264.

3. Some people think the drama and the opera should be subsidized. What do they mean? Do you agree with them?

4. Should motion-picture shows be owned and operated by the government? If so, should tickets be sold at cost, or should admission be free? Give reasons.

5. Has the town or city in which you live ever held a community pageant or celebration? What is there in your local history which would be well suited for a pageant? What would be the civic value of such an event? What is meant by "civic value"? Could your school start such a project? If so, suggest a plan which might be followed.

6. Describe the recreation facilities in a rural community in which you live or have lived. Suggest improvements and indicate how they could be established.

7. Which needs play facilities more—a city child or a rural child? Why?

8. What is your favorite game? Can you tell what you like in it?

9. Should the winners in an athletic tournament or contest be rewarded with a trophy? If so, why? If a trophy is offered should it be for the players or for the school? Give reasons for your opinion.

10. Report on the Smithsonian Institution (see Haskin, *American Government*, pp. 207–218). Is there a museum in your school or community? If so, describe some of the interesting objects it contains.

11. In some communities the children take walking-trips, lasting for several weeks, under the supervision of some older person. What would be the value of such an expedition? Should you like to go on one?

12. Have you any Boy Scout or Camp Fire organizations in your community? If so, describe their activities; if not, should you not form some?

13. What is the greatest recreational need of your community? Suggest ways of meeting it. Can your school do anything to help meet it?

14. What are the advantages and disadvantages of government control of places of amusement?

15. Organize a Playground Club and, after obtaining the owner's permission, clean the vacant lot in your neighborhood and fit it up as a playground.

16. Describe the favorite form of outdoor or indoor recreation of the following persons: President Harding, Theodore Roosevelt, Abraham Lincoln, George Washington (consult their biographies).

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that our community should establish a theater and concert hall in which entertainments should be given at cost.

Resolved, that motion-picture theaters as now conducted do more harm than good to the community.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

The Play of Animals
 My Favorite Amusement
 Playgrounds in our Community
 A Community Christmas Celebration
 Camping Experiences
 Community Singing
 A Hiking Club
 Reading as Recreation
 Experiences as a Boy Scout (or Girl Scout)
 Our Public Library
 Our Museum
 A Pageant for our Town

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CHAPTER XI

CIVIC BEAUTY

A thing of beauty is a joy forever.—JOHN KEATS

We are not to suppose that in thinking of the beauties of the city or country we are thinking of ourselves only, for beauty and ugliness have an effect upon the minds of all classes of residents.—JAMES BRYCE

SECTION I. THE NEED FOR BEAUTY

The love of beauty. Flowers, rainbows, and gorgeous sunsets are not essential to existence, but they add greatly to the joy and satisfaction of life. Diamond rings, pearl necklaces, and gold bracelets are of no value in protecting the body from cold or rain, but they are eagerly sought after, and large sums of money are spent for them. A pearl-handled pocket-knife or a silver-mounted fishing-rod is no more useful than a good barlow knife or a slender pole cut in a thicket,—sometimes not so useful,—but none the less they are much more desired by most men and boys than their plain counterparts. The fact is that everyone—from the cannibal, who will barter away a favorite wife for a glittering trinket, to the cultured millionaire, who will pay a king's ransom for a famous painting—loves beautiful things. Our love of beauty can no more be explained than our desire for friends or our love of fun. All three are instinctive.

Individual control of beauty. To a certain extent we are able as individuals to satisfy our love of beauty within our homes and upon our bodies. It does not take much money to adorn the home with a few artistic pictures on the walls or with attractive dishes and pleasing silverware on the table. Usually only knowledge and pains are needed to secure a harmonious color scheme in a room. A clean face and hands,

hair properly brushed and combed, and a neat dress or suit can as a rule be had by everyone willing to take any trouble about such matters. And when such trouble is taken, the change in the outward appearance is sometimes so great as to make one look and feel like a different person.

Community control of beauty. But outside the home, especially in a city, it is not so easy for one person to make things beautiful. Factories and locomotives may darken the sky with smoke in spite of all he can do, and dirty, narrow, crooked streets are usually beyond his power to remedy. Only as he is able to stir the community itself to action can such conditions be bettered.

Early American cities. In America in early days the pioneers had too many tasks which needed to be done to give much attention to making their settlements beautiful. Forests had to be cut down, stumps uprooted, underbrush grubbed out, and fields cleared of stones. Cabins had to be erected, bridges built, and roads and canals constructed. In many places towns were not planned; like Topsy they simply "grewed." In other instances the original plans, while extensive for the time, have proved utterly inadequate to meet modern needs and conditions.

William Penn, for example, drew up what was thought to be a most elaborate plan for the town of Philadelphia. Two main streets running at right angles to one another were to be one hundred feet wide; the other streets were to be fifty. Space for a number of small parks was set aside. The city blocks were made large so that every house could have a yard and a garden about it. Sidewalks and streets were to be shaded by beautiful trees. The City of Brotherly Love was to be, as Penn put it, "a faire greene country towne."

But, splendid as Penn's plan was in its day, it does not serve the present needs of Philadelphia. Laid out like a checkerboard, with the east-and-west streets at right angles to the north-and-south streets, the general effect is monotonous, distances are increased, and traffic is hampered. A straight

line, as all know, is the shortest distance between two points, but with streets laid out entirely in rectangles it is frequently possible to reach one's destination only by traveling by a zigzag, indirect route from one part of the city to the other.

Courtesy of the Bureau of Surveys

PENN'S PLAN FOR PHILADELPHIA

The checkerboard street plan was a great improvement on the irregular, jumbled scheme followed in other early American towns, but the immense growth of the city and the needs of modern traffic make the rectangular arrangement of the blocks and the narrow streets inadequate for present-day demands. Penn's foresight in setting aside space for numerous small parks and squares is an especially praiseworthy feature of his design.

In addition, some of the streets of Philadelphia have proved too narrow for street-car lines, automobiles, and trucks; on others, traffic can go in only one direction. Steps involving enormous expense have been undertaken to fit some of these streets for the needs of modern business. Moreover, the original blocks were so large that, as land increased in value, houses and tenements were built on the rear of the lots, where they must now face alleys and narrow

passageways. In spite of Penn's plan, therefore, Philadelphia has congested sections in which the housing conditions are much like those in other large cities; in these crowded districts it is not only difficult to make the surroundings beautiful but it is almost impossible to supply sufficient light and air. Of course Penn could not see that his little settlement would eventually become a great city, and his plan therefore applied only to a small area. But with the years Philadelphia, just like other cities, has grown rapidly. What were once villages, miles from its center, are now parts of the metropolis. Since the founders of all these outlying communities had no idea that their settlements would ultimately be included within Philadelphia, each was laid out as an independent town without relation to any other.¹ Now that they compose one great city the effect is like that which would take place if dozens of buildings, each constructed without relation to the others, were to be joined into a single structure—a sprawling, ill-jointed, ugly monstrosity.

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A NARROW BUSINESS STREET

In this narrow city cañon, which is the leading street in Philadelphia for retail stores, not only is traffic slowed up but the light, especially in the lower stories of the buildings, is greatly diminished.

¹ J. L. Barnard and J. C. Evans, *Citizenship in Philadelphia*, pp. 199-203 ; F. C. Howe, *The Modern City and its Problems*, pp. 194-196.

Appearance of American cities. When seen as a whole, this is the appearance of most American cities—streets of all sorts are jumbled together without rime or reason; lovely parks are laid out in some sections, and none exist in others; magnificent shade trees abound in certain districts, while streets are utterly barren in less fortunate neighborhoods. In short, owing to other more pressing needs the first settlers gave little or no attention to making their communities beautiful, and as a result, though they all contain elements of beauty, American towns and cities as a rule are ugly, disordered, and unattractive.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. "Beauty is its own excuse for being." What did Emerson mean by this statement?
2. Did the first settlers in your community follow any plan in the founding of the settlement? If so, is it still used?
3. What are the advantages of laying streets out diagonally?

SECTION II. HOW THE CITY BEAUTIFUL DEVELOPED

Athens and Rome. The most marvelous city of the ancient world was Athens. Situated upon high ground so that its beautiful buildings could be seen for miles around from both land and sea, it was the pride of Athenians and the wonder of strangers. The imperial city of Rome was equally famous for its grandeur. Its huge baths, splendid palaces, impressive temples, colossal amphitheaters, broad avenues, and stately forums astonished all who visited them. These ancient cities aroused not only the love and devotion of their citizens and the admiration of travelers, but they have been objects of delight and inspiration to the world's greatest artists and architects from those far-off days to the present time.

Medieval towns. Although medieval towns contained marvelous Gothic cathedrals and artistic bell towers, guild halls,

and palaces, their streets were narrow and crooked, their houses were small and dingy, and the towns themselves, in spite of certain picturesque features, presented in general a depressing appearance of squalor, congestion, and ugliness.

Photo by U.S. Army Air Service

THE "ARCH OF TRIUMPH OF THE STAR"


This airplane view of one of the most beautiful quarters of Paris gives a good idea of a city circle and the streets which radiate from it. The majestic triumphal arch—the largest in the world—was begun by Napoleon I in commemoration of his military victories. Beneath it was buried with imposing military honors the unknown poilu selected as a representative of the unidentified French soldiers who died in the World War.

Paris. Not until two hundred and twenty-five years ago was any systematic effort made to plan and beautify a great city. About that time the ambitious king of France, Louis XIV, ordered the chief architects of the country to

draw up plans for the beautification of his capital, Paris. Designs were adopted which provided for broad avenues and boulevards and for the location of magnificent palaces and stately public buildings. A century later Napoleon I continued the work of beautifying the city by cutting new streets, constructing graceful bridges, introducing the first sidewalks, installing street lights, and erecting splendid monuments, arches, and public edifices.

But it was left for his nephew, Napoleon III, to transform the French capital into what is probably the most beautiful and best-designed city in Europe. In accordance with the advice of Baron Haussmann, a famous architect whom the emperor employed to plan and direct the work, hundreds of old buildings in congested districts were torn down, broad thoroughfares were cut diagonally from the center of the city, and magnificent boulevards were laid in circles about it. The railway stations were concentrated in a convenient location, public buildings were constructed in effective groups, and parks and open squares were provided in generous numbers. Over \$250,000,000 were spent in these improvements, but in the years that have since elapsed the mere income from tourists attracted to Paris by the beauty and associations of the city has greatly exceeded that sum.

Washington. In America, meanwhile, a city had been founded which in site and plan was well-nigh ideal. A short time after our federal government was established Congress decided that the capital of the nation should be located on the Potomac River at a place to be selected by the President. It is doubtful whether any of our famous men have had a greater love of beauty than George Washington; his passionate devotion to Mt. Vernon—his beautiful home overlooking the Potomac—is one evidence of this fact. After Congress had decided on the general location for the capital, Washington personally went over the region and finally selected the site where the city which bears his name now stands.



His appointment of Major L'Enfant, a French military engineer who had aided the Americans during the Revolutionary War, to plan the city was fortunate. A man of genius and artistic imagination, L'Enfant visited the chief cities of Europe, carefully studied designs submitted by Thomas Jefferson (who was himself an architect of no mean

PLAN OF WASHINGTON

The streets which run north, east, and south from the Capitol and a line drawn through the center of the Mall (the park place to the left) divide the city into four sections known as Northeast, Northwest, Southeast, and Southwest (indicated on the map by the letters NE, NW, SE, and SW). Expecting that the city would grow toward the east, the original planners constructed the Capitol to face that quarter ; on the contrary, however, the city has developed toward the west. The most important street in Washington is Pennsylvania Avenue ; it connects the Capitol and the White House, and most of the other public buildings are within a few minutes' walk from it. Locate the building shown on page 495.

ability), and conferred frequently with both Washington and Jefferson in making the plans for the new capital. The result was the most artistic and elaborate plan ever drawn up for the building of a great city. Although various government commissions have worked on the design since L'Enfant's day, they have been unable, with the exception of the development of the park system, to make any notable

improvements in it; in fact, in most instances where alterations have been made they have proved unfortunate.

The main feature in the plan of the city is a magnificent kite-shaped garden or parkway called the Mall. For a distance of almost three miles the Mall extends in a westerly direction from the gold-domed Library of Congress to the stately Lincoln Memorial on the banks of the Potomac. Forming the cross section near its western end is a wide parkway flanked in part by public buildings constructed of pure-white marble. On the rising ground at the north end of this cross axis is the White House, and at its southern extremity is Potomac Park. On an elevation near the eastern end of the Mall is the Capitol, where Congress

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PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE, WASHINGTON, D.C.

This broad boulevard is probably the most historic street in America. Over it has moved every inaugural procession since the days of John Adams; in 1865 it witnessed the review of the Grand Army of the Republic; at the conclusion of the World War it was chosen as the chief scene for the triumphal march of the famous First Division of the United States Army. In the east can be seen the Capitol, while the higher tower at the right marks the headquarters of the Post-Office Department. As in many cities, automobiles are required to park near the center of the street rather than by the curb; there is still, however, ample space for double street-car tracks and for traffic at either side. Locate this avenue on the map on page 279.

and the Supreme Court hold their sessions. Along both sides of the east-and-west driveways government buildings are being placed. Near the intersection of the two axes is the marble shaft erected in honor of Washington and by many artists considered the most majestic column in the world.

But Washington is not merely a city of majestic columns and beautiful statues and stately marble buildings. It is equally distinguished for its broad avenues, magnificent shade trees, and innumerable parks. Its boulevards are shaded by hundreds of trees of an almost endless variety—one is bordered by silver maples, another by American elms, a third by horse-chestnuts, a fourth by magnolias, a fifth by American lindens. The many diagonal streets (for, unlike the most of our cities, Washington is not laid out on the checkerboard plan) give frequent opportunity at their intersection for hundreds of small parks and open circles.

THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT

The stately marble shaft seen in the distance was erected in honor of George Washington. It is 555 feet in height, the loftiest piece of masonry in the world. The interior, which is lighted by electricity, is faced in part by memorial stones from all parts of the world,—among them stones from the Parthenon in Athens, the Chapel of William Tell in Switzerland, the ruins of ancient Carthage, and the Alexandrian Library in Egypt. The monument dominates not only the city of Washington but the landscape for miles around. This picture was taken from Continental Hall, in which the Limitation of Armaments Conference was held.

Not only is everyone in the city within a few minutes' walk of a small park, but many of the streets end in delightful sylvan views, and, as Bryce says, "nothing is more charming than to see a bit of green landscape—trees or a grassy slope—at the end of a long street vista." The rolling surface, the

WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION

Most of the buildings of the World's Fair at Chicago were composed of an iron framework covered with a material which resembled marble. It was from their dazzling whiteness that the exposition came to be called the White City. The principal buildings were grouped around the Court of Honor shown in the picture.

location of many of the most noble buildings on commanding elevations, and the artistic manner in which the streets are laid out make Washington unequalled for charm by any city in the world. It has sometimes been called the city of beautiful trees and magnificent vistas.

Influence of the World's Fair. Unfortunately the growing beauty and nobility of the capital did not have at first much influence on city-planning in the United States. Decades elapsed before any serious attention was given to the matter. Then in 1893 a great world's fair was held in Chicago, and the

hundreds of thousands of visitors from all over the country who saw with delight what seemed to be a veritable city of magic could not but wonder why, if men could erect such a marvel of loveliness to endure for only a few brief months, they could not build permanent cities marked by equal grace and beauty. Thus, from the White City by the Lake, came a stimulus for the city beautiful in America.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give a brief description of ancient Athens; of ancient Rome (see Breasted, *Ancient Times*, pp. 363-371, 608-612).
2. Why was the national capital located on the Potomac River? (See Hart, *Formation of the Union*, pp. 148-149.)
3. What changes in your community would make it more beautiful? more convenient? How could these changes be brought about? Could your school help in any way?

SECTION III. CITY-PLANNING

Needs. In recent years city after city has appointed commissions to study its needs, to prepare plans to remedy its defects, and to plan for its future growth and development. In general it has been found that streets need to be widened, diagonal avenues provided, parks and public squares multiplied, proposed buildings considered from the standpoint of beauty, public edifices located in effective, convenient groups, housing conditions remedied, and the city itself divided into zones or sections in each of which only certain activities shall be permitted.

A few years ago James Bryce, at that time British ambassador to the United States, was asked to make suggestions for the further beautification of Washington, as the national capital, with all its merits, is still far from perfect. What Mr. Bryce said applies in part to every city.

There ought to be some method of securing a measure of symmetry and harmony in buildings. The public buildings to be

erected should not be planted haphazard. Each building ought to be placed with some reference to the others, so that they will form, if possible, a group together, and all go to make up a good general effect.

In the same way, when laying out the streets, it is proper to consider the lines on which the streets may best be planned, so as to give the best scenic effect and so as to open up the best vistas. . . .

I am far from suggesting that you should try to attain uniformity in your buildings, because uniformity usually ends in monotony. That can be seen in Paris. When the city was largely rebuilt by Haussmann in Louis Napoleon's day, that error was committed. While many of the boulevards of that time are very handsome, one gets tired of the repetition of the same designs and structure over and over again. . . .

Ought not pains to be taken to plant groups of trees [in parks], some large groups and more small groups, so as to give fine combinations? One day these will grow to the size

WOOLWORTH BUILDING AT NIGHT
The towers which adorn some of the skyscrapers of our great cities have been likened to the spires of the Gothic cathedrals which were built in the Middle Ages. The Woolworth Building, New York City, is the highest structure of the kind anywhere in the world.

of old forest trees and the effect will be impressive. We must take thought for even the distant future, for we are the trustees in this way for posterity, and we want posterity to think well of us.¹

¹*National Geographic Magazine* (June, 1913), Vol. XXIV, pp. 733-735.

Plans. In recent years many of our cities have begun extensive planning projects. Cleveland, with a population of almost a million people, is grouping its public buildings most effectively. A broad parkway six hundred feet wide is to extend from the retail business center to a magnificent

· BRIDGE AT MANKATO, MINNESOTA

Graceful bridges like this concrete structure over the Minnesota River possess great possibilities for beautifying a community. In their artistic bridges and their beautification of water fronts European cities in general far surpass American municipalities.

union railway station, which is to be located so as to serve as the gateway to the city. Flanking this garden spot, which is to contain flowers, fountains, and statuary, are to be erected a splendid library, a courthouse, a city hall, and other public buildings. On the lake shore there will be a beautiful park equipped with playgrounds and other recreation facilities. A large part of this work has already been completed or is in process of construction.

In Boston, city-planning has manifested itself chiefly in the development of one of the most perfect park systems in the world. Philadelphia is engaged in the widening of her most important streets, the creation of numerous public squares and circles, the beautifying of her bridges and river

THE SAN FRANCISCO AUDITORIUM

This auditorium, in which the Democratic national convention of 1920 was held, is part of a civic center planned for San Francisco, California.

banks, the development of her park system, and the creation of a stately civic center where cathedrals, museums, and municipal buildings will be grouped.

Probably the most stupendous effort at city-planning is that of Chicago. At a cost of hundreds of millions of dollars, broad diagonal avenues are to be cut through the rectangular street system from the business center to the outlying districts; parkways and parks are to be increased; and a number of beautiful boulevards are to be laid out so as to encircle the heart of the city at increasing distances. In the

center of the city is to be located a magnificent civic center to be surrounded by public buildings. Dominating these structures and towering to such a height as to be visible for miles around, will rise the dome of a majestic city hall. A large circular harbor is to be provided on the lake front and a beautiful park over twenty miles in length is to be created in the lake by dumping ashes and like rubbish within piles driven into the bottom of the lake at some distance from the shore. Between this artificial park and the mainland there will be lagoons suitable for swimming, rowing, and yachting. The project also includes the erection of the largest passenger station in the world, the construction of a stadium seating 100,000 people, provision for bathing-beaches accommodating 20,000, and the building of an enormous aquarium.

St. Louis, Minneapolis, Los Angeles, Detroit, Denver, Milwaukee, Baltimore, Pittsburgh, and many smaller cities have also adopted extensive planning projects. Some states require all cities of a certain size to have planning commissions. In addition to civic centers, boulevards, and park systems, the most complete plans provide for the zoning of the city into industrial, commercial, and residential districts. The factory zone, for example, is located near the railroads or harbor for commercial purposes and, if possible, on the leeward side of the city in relation to the prevailing winds so

KERSEY COATES TERRACE

The possibilities for beautifying an ugly hillside and, at the same time, of lessening the danger of destructive washouts are seen in this terrace at Kansas City, Missouri.

as to protect the inhabitants from smoke and soot. The height of buildings, their distance from the street, the area they may cover, the planting of shade trees, and the unifying of transportation are all vitally related to city-planning. One writer says:

In a big way, city-planning involves a new vision of the city. It means a city built by experts in architecture, in landscape gardening, in engineering and housing; by students of health, sanitation, transportation, water, gas, and electricity supply; by a new type of officials who visualize the complex life of a million people as the architect visualizes an individual home.¹

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How many of Mr. Bryce's suggestions for the beautifying of Washington would apply to your community?
2. What is meant by "zoning"? State its advantages and the obstacles which hinder its accomplishment. Is your city divided into zones? How does zoning affect the value of real estate?
3. Has your city a planning commission? If so, describe its work; if not, sketch a plan for your community.
4. Suggest methods of beautifying rural communities.
5. Describe the planning project of one of the cities mentioned in this section.

SECTION IV. SUNLIGHT AND ELBOWROOM FOR ALL

Effect of the Boer War on England. During the Boer War, British recruiting officers were forced to reject so many men because of bad eyes, unsound lungs, weak hearts, and diseased bodies that thoughtful Englishmen everywhere became alarmed. Were the English becoming degenerate? was a question which agitated the public for months.

After earnest investigations and discussions in and out of Parliament many persons became convinced that at least one important cause of the physical defects revealed by the war

¹F. C. Howe, *The Modern City and its Problems*, pp. 228f. Published and copyrighted by Charles Scribner's Sons.

was to be found in the wretched, gloomy, crowded hovels and tenements in which large numbers of city dwellers were forced to live year in, year out. Attention was thus turned to the housing problem, numerous suggestions were made, and reform after reform was gradually introduced.

A TENEMENT DISTRICT

Congested districts like this disfigure almost every city in the United States. Built of wood and oftentimes in a tumbledown condition, these houses are fire-traps; yet people live in them, jammed together in almost unbelievable numbers. About one third of the population of such districts are children under thirteen years of age. Living and sleeping in stuffy, overcrowded rooms and playing in the streets, it is not strange that an alarming number of them grow up diseased in both body and soul.

Garden cities in England. Among the most interesting of the English housing reforms was the building of garden cities. Letchworth, the original garden city, is about thirty-five miles from London. A large section of beautiful, rolling farm land, partly wooded, was laid out as a city. Not more than twelve houses were permitted to an acre of land. Thus the lots were so large that every home could have a garden.

Wide, shady streets and sidewalks were provided. Not more than 5 per cent interest was paid to those who furnished the money to build the new community. Steps were taken to attract factories and mills so that the inhabitants of the city could find employment near their homes. The project proved successful, and today Letchworth is a beautiful, thriving city of over ten thousand inhabitants.

Of a quite different character was the suburb of Hampstead. This garden city lies on the outskirts of London. Unlike Letchworth it contains no factories or mills, but since transportation facilities are excellent and fares reasonable the inhabitants have no difficulty in going to and from their work. Here, too, are wide streets, comfortable houses, well-kept gardens, and an abundance of air and sunshine. Rentals are low—a three-room cottage before the World War cost from \$1.50 to \$2 a week; a five-room or six-room dwelling, from \$2 to \$3.50. In ten years the death rate in the families which moved to Hampstead was reduced from 67 in every 1000 (the rate in London) to 7.¹

The garden cities accomplish wonders for the children. An official report comparing the boys who live in the garden city of Port Sunlight, a suburb of Liverpool, with those dwelling within the great city is as follows:²

| | BOYS AGED 7 | | BOYS AGED 11 | | BOYS AGED 14 | |
|-------------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | Height in Inches | Weight in Pounds | Height in Inches | Weight in Pounds | Height in Inches | Weight in Pounds |
| Port Sunlight schools . | 47.0 | 50.5 | 57.0 | 79.5 | 62.2 | 108.0 |
| Liverpool schools . . | 44.3 | 43.0 | 51.8 | 59.0 | 56.2 | 75.8 |
| Difference . . . | 2.7 | 7.5 | 5.2 | 20.5 | 6.0 | 32.2 |

France, Germany, and Australia. France, Germany, and Australia had also taken steps to improve their housing

¹H. James, "Housing for Workers," in *Lessons in Community and National Life*, C-32, p. 259.

²*Congressional Record* (September 14, 1914), p. 15,114.

conditions before the World War. The French government advanced millions of dollars at 2 per cent interest to aid in house construction. German cities bought land and lent money in large sums for homes, and the imperial government appropriated over \$100,000,000 for similar purposes.

A BEAUTIFUL RESIDENCE STREET

This shaded, winding avenue in Buffalo, New York, is an example of an ideal residence street. It is called the Soldiers' Circle.

Australia adopted the French plan and lent millions of dollars to her people for the building of homes.

United States. Our own country has been a laggard in housing reform, although in some places progress has been made. In Massachusetts the state government has lent millions of dollars at a low rate of interest and for a long period of years to encourage housing projects. In North Dakota a citizen who can advance one fifth of the cost of a house and lot can borrow enough money from the state to enable him to build a home.

An interesting example of a successful private housing enterprise is that of the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company in Akron, Ohio. Four hundred and fifty acres of beautifully situated farming-land were purchased near the Goodyear factories for \$300 an acre. Lots with an average frontage of 50 feet and a depth of 120 feet were laid out. Before any houses were built the company put in sewers, water, gas, and electric mains and constructed substantial sidewalks and pavements. Space for a hospital, public schools, a girls' dormitory, an athletic field, and several playgrounds and small parks was provided. Of the entire four hundred and fifty acres about one fifth is in streets, one fifth in parks and playgrounds, and three fifths in lots.

More than one thousand dwellings of a great variety of types have been erected. In general they contain five or six rooms, bath, and basement. They are supplied with the necessary connections for sewerage, water, gas, electricity, and hot-air heating. These houses are sold to the Goodyear employees at cost. They range from \$3500 to \$6000. They are sold on such terms that any workman can own a home—only 2 per cent is required as the first payment; a mortgage on the balance at a low rate of interest runs for twenty years. An arrangement is also made by which purchasers can protect their families by a life-insurance policy equal to the mortgage on the property.

Effect of the World War. The entrance of the United States into the World War brought a crisis in our housing problem. Here, too, deplorable physical defects previously referred to (see page 185) were found in many of the recruits. In addition, the flocking of thousands of men to places where war supplies of all sorts were being made greatly overcrowded the existing dwellings. Rather than live under such conditions, many of the men refused to remain in government munition plants and shipyards. In consequence the output of guns, ships, and other military supplies was seriously endangered.

In this crisis Congress voted \$50,000,000 for the building of homes for men employed in war industries. In subsequent months additional millions were spent for this purpose. In some places entire towns containing sewers, paved streets, and electric lights were built. Unfortunately some of the houses which were erected were commonplace and

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UNION STATION IN WASHINGTON

The gateway to a modern city is its railway station. It is here that a traveler receives his first impressions of a community. Unfortunately this building is frequently commonplace and the district in which it is located a most dingy quarter. That a railway terminal may be a thing of beauty as well as service is shown by this magnificent edifice and its surroundings. The passenger concourse is the largest room in the world under a single roof; it can accommodate 50,000 people at one time. In front of the station and facing its main entrance is a stately memorial to Columbus.

ugly in appearance and fell far short of the attractive homes in the garden cities of England. But with all their defects the government houses formed a favorable contrast to the dwellings occupied by millions of American citizens.

Summary. The love of beauty is instinctive. So far as our own personal surroundings are concerned, its gratification is largely under our own control, but only the community can make the general environment convenient and beautiful. The early colonists, owing to their many pressing

needs and the impossibility of their knowing how cities would develop in the future, were not able to found such settlements, and as a result most American cities of today are monotonous in plan and unattractive in appearance. Following the beautification of Paris and Washington, and inspired by the grace and charm of the World's Columbian Exposition, however, many cities during late years have begun extensive planning projects. These plans usually include (1) the arrangement of streets and parks so as to provide for the convenience and recreation of the community; (2) the erection of beautiful public buildings in effective groups; (3) the zoning of the city into residential, industrial, and commercial districts; and (4) the improvement of housing conditions.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Criticize your school building and school grounds from the standpoint of beauty. How could the pupils make both more attractive?

2. Is Arbor Day observed by your school? Would the planting of trees improve your school grounds? the street where you live? your own yard? If so, what are the best trees to plant? What are the advantages of planting trees in groups in the parks?

3. Does your county government do anything to promote beauty? your state government? the national government?

4. What other conditions, aside from better housing, may help to explain the physical differences between the children of Liverpool and Port Sunlight which are mentioned on page 290?

5. In 1920 the City Council of Chicago authorized an increase in the maximum height of buildings in the down-town district from 200 feet to 260 feet. Comment on the effect on light and ventilation.

6. Find out what you can about the town of Nitro, West Virginia, and the kind of houses which were built there (consult a recent encyclopedia).

7. Does your community have a housing problem? Is anything being done to solve it? What should be done?

8. Do you see any objections to the plan of the Goodyear Company of selling houses to its employees?

9. What different things are needed to make an ideal house?

10. Explain Mr. Bryce's statement, "We are the trustees . . . for posterity."

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that commercial billboards should be abolished by law.

Resolved, that the state government should lend three fourths of the cost of building a home at 2 per cent interest to any of its citizens who can furnish the remaining one fourth.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

The Shade Trees in our Community

The Beautifying of our School Grounds

Our City Today and Tomorrow

How to beautify a Back Yard

Arbor Day

Housing Conditions in our Community .

A Trip with a Visiting Nurse

Whitewash and Paint

Artistic Bridges I have seen

My Idea of a Living-Room

READINGS FOR PUPILS

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CHAPTER XII

THE HANDICAPPED

The best help for those who are handicapped, whether physically, mentally, or morally, is that which helps them to help themselves.—ANONYMOUS

SECTION I. THE BLIND AND THE DEAF

What it means to be blind or deaf. Shut your eyes and keep them closed for one minute. You now have a faint idea of the lot of those who dwell in darkness all their days,—faint because you have a mental image of your surroundings which a blind person has not. Now stop your ears for a little while; you can thus gain some notion of what it means to go through life in a silence. Of course the fact that you can open your eyes or unstop your ears at any moment makes these simple experiments utterly inadequate to show you the real condition of the blind and the deaf. None the less, has not the mere shutting of your eyes for a time increased your sympathy for those who can never look at the sky on a starry night or see the faces of their friends? And does not the stopping of your ears a few minutes give you a kindlier feeling toward those who cannot hear the melodies of music or know the wonders of the human voice?

The blind and deaf in former times. The lot of the sightless and the deaf is far brighter today than it was centuries ago. In ancient times the Greeks and Romans occasionally took blind or deaf babies into the forest or up on the mountain side and left them there to die of cold and hunger or to be eaten by wild beasts. In the Middle Ages persons who could not see or hear were classed as lunatics or idiots; they were feared, shunned, and mistreated; their misfortune was

frequently thought to be punishment for sin; some superstitious souls believed them possessed with devils. Treated at best with indifference and heavily handicapped by their misfortune, they could get food and clothing as a rule only by begging from the passers-by. Although there are a few instances where efforts were made to educate them, it was not

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BLIND CHILDREN LEARNING ABOUT NATURE

In this picture at the left the children are "seeing" a stuffed elephant. In the one at the right they are studying geography with a relief globe.

until the latter half of the eighteenth century that effective methods for their instruction and training were introduced.

First school for the deaf. In 1755 the abbé de l'Épée, who had become interested in two deaf orphans, opened a school for the deaf near Paris. Henceforth he devoted his life to the education of his pupils, developing and inventing methods of instructing them, writing books about them, and in other ways arousing interest in their welfare. At first he paid the expenses of the school out of his own pocket, but it was not long until his achievements won assistance from others and finally secured the support of the government.

First school for the blind. Not long after L'Épée founded his school for the deaf, a Frenchman named Haüy was stirred to pity and indignation at the condition of the blind



ALPHABET, PUNCTUATION, AND NUMERALS USED BY THE BLIND

Almost blind himself, Louis Braille (Brä'ë), then about twenty years of age, devised the system of raised points or dots now used with modifications by the blind in reading and writing. In this system only six points arranged in three horizontal columns of two points each are employed; the number of points used and the way they are arranged indicate the various characters.

by a spectacle in which a group of blind men were exhibited to a curious crowd at a fair in Paris. Shocked and angered at the sight, Haüy's interest in the blind was aroused, and shortly afterwards, on meeting a blind beggar boy on the streets of the city, he offered the little fellow money to become his pupil.

After hard effort Haüy taught the boy to read; and, encouraged by this success, in 1784 he opened a school for the blind, the first of its kind in the history of the world. Supported in the beginning by private gifts, the school was eventually taken over by the French national government.

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BLIND WOMAN READING A MAGAZINE

The *Matilda Ziegler Magazine*, which this woman is reading, is the only periodical which is issued every month for the blind in America. It contains news, articles, poems, and stories. It is carried free of postage by the United States mail. In reading, the blind use the tips of the first and second fingers of the right hand to follow the line, while the left hand is used to mark the beginning of the next line.

First American school for the deaf. In the United States the public education of the deaf was begun in 1817 in Hartford, Connecticut.¹ The school grew out of the gifts of a

¹ Earlier efforts for the training of the deaf had been made in New York and Virginia, but the schools did not prove permanent.

group of men who had become interested in the deaf daughter of one of their number. Young Mr. Gallaudet, then studying for the ministry, also became greatly interested in the little girl and, when appealed to, gave up his intended work and started for Europe to prepare himself to teach the

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MAP FOR THE BLIND

This map is from the *Matilda Ziegler Magazine*. The rough portion is water, the smooth portion land. The names of the various countries and physical features have been added in ink to make it easier for us to understand the map. A blind person needs only to run his fingers over the row of rough dots in order to read the inscriptions.

deaf. For over a year he studied the methods used at L'Épée's school. Upon his return to America half a year more was taken up in securing sufficient funds to start the school, but at last everything was ready and the institution opened its doors with six or eight pupils in attendance.

From the first the school was a success. Within a short time applications for admission came from all over the country. The increase in expense was met by gifts from private individuals, churches, societies, state legislatures, and even foreign lands. At last Congress, owing in large part to the influence of Henry Clay, gave twenty-three thousand acres of the public land to its support. Later on this land was sold for \$300,000, and henceforth the financial foundation of the school was secure.¹

HELEN KELLER AND MRS. MACY

As a result of severe illness Helen Keller lost her sight and hearing when she was nineteen months old. During her eighth year her parents secured as her teacher Miss Helen Sullivan, who had been trained in the Perkins Institution for the Blind (Dr. Howe's school). The little girl learned rapidly and at the age of twenty-four was graduated with honor from Radcliffe College. As a writer and lecturer she has achieved a national reputation. In this picture she is talking with Miss Sullivan (now Mrs. John A. Macy) by the lip method.

First American school for the blind. The pioneer in the education of the blind in America was Dr. Samuel G. Howe. When a young man he had joined the Greeks

in their war for independence against the Turks (1821-1829), and shortly after his return to the United States he

¹H. Best, *The Deaf*, pp. 134-137.

had taken a keen interest in the blind. About this time some prominent citizens of Boston, stirred by the fame of Haüy's school in Paris and by the number of blind people in New England, took steps to provide an institution to train them in this country. Dr. Howe was invited to take charge of the school, but before undertaking the work he followed Gallaudet's example and went to Europe to study the methods of instruction there. Upon his return in 1832 he opened in Boston what later became the Perkins Institution for the Blind.

Dr. Howe's most famous pupil was Laura Bridgman, a blind, deaf-mute girl, defective also in the sense of smell, who had lost both sight and hearing when scarcely two years of age. By kindness and patience Dr. Howe taught her not only to read and write but to master even more difficult tasks. Eventually she developed into a well-educated woman of keen mind and noble character. It was largely by methods which Dr. Howe had used with Laura Bridgman that at a later time Miss Sullivan broke the prison bars which confined the mind of an even more remarkable blind, deaf-mute girl named Helen Keller.

Support and management. These early schools were supported largely by private gifts and were controlled by private organizations. Almost from the beginning, however, their doors were open to citizens of the entire country, and as they proved their usefulness state after state not only gave money for their support but established schools under public management. At the present time there is no state which does not either support one or more such institutions or provide instruction for its deaf and its blind children elsewhere.

In most states the schools for the deaf and the blind are institutions where the pupils live during their attendance. Recently there has been a movement to educate them in day schools, which they attend only during hours of instruction. The day schools make it possible for pupils to live at home, to be cared for by their parents, and to play with children

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not handicapped as they are. According to some authorities, however, the instruction in the day schools is less efficient than in the boarding schools, where pupils are under the constant supervision of their teachers. The latest development in the education of the blind is the housing of pupils in

BLIND CHILDREN AT PLAY

These boys are having great fun with their slides, giant swings, sand-bins, and trapezes. Notice the band, or drum corps, to the left of the giant swing. The blind and partially sighted are frequently skillful gymnasts and capable football players.

families; here they can receive better care, it is believed, than it is possible for them to obtain in large institutions.

Elementary and vocational education. In addition to such elementary studies as reading, writing, history, geography, and arithmetic, deaf pupils are taught to speak, to read lips, and to take care of their bodies. Music occupies an important place in the education of the blind. With both the blind and the deaf emphasis is laid on industrial education. The blind

are taught sewing, typewriting, piano-tuning, broom-making, basketry, shoemaking, gardening, and poultry-raising. Many blind people can do as useful work as people who can see, only they must do it in a somewhat different fashion. The deaf have shown themselves able to learn almost any occupation.

Higher education. Gallaudet College, in Washington, D. C., is the only institution in the world devoted solely to the higher education of the deaf. It is supported by the national government and is open on equal terms to all the deaf in the country. Among its graduates are clergymen, editors, publishers, teachers, architects, artists, chemists, and farmers. Many persons handicapped by lack of sight or hearing have also made brilliant records in such universities as Harvard and Columbia, and there is scarcely a profession they have not adorned. New York and several other states now pay \$300 a year for special aid to any deaf or blind student attending a recognized university in the state.

Music, magazines, and books. Every year sheet music, magazines, and books are published in large numbers for the blind. Since the mails carry such literature free, any blind person can obtain it without difficulty through state or city libraries. As a result of these varied opportunities the great majority of the blind and the deaf can now become self-supporting and happy.

Proportion of the deaf and the blind in school. According to the latest available census returns there are in the United States over 40,000 persons who are totally deaf and over 55,000 who are totally blind. More than half of these are adults who, in the case of the blind, were usually grown up before they lost their sight. About four fifths of the deaf under twenty years of age are attending school. This is an encouraging number when it is remembered that more than nine tenths of the graduates of schools for the deaf are self-supporting; and ability to support oneself usually means usefulness and contentment.

It is more difficult, however, to get the blind in school. Blind children are naturally more timid about leaving home than deaf children, and their parents are more reluctant to have them go. These reasons and the lack of proper schools for many years explain the fact that many blind children

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PLAYING DOMINOES

Dominoes is a favorite pastime with the blind. The pieces are made with raised dots and with edges which dovetail into one another. This arrangement makes the game easy to play.

have never attended any school. This percentage is steadily decreasing, however, and in time the blind will doubtless share equally with the deaf in the advantages of education.

Blindness and deafness largely preventable. The saddest thing about blindness or deafness is that in most instances the defect might have been prevented. According to the census bureau, for example, the most important single cause of blindness is injury from accident—over one eighth of all cases of blindness have this as their direct cause.¹ Four fifths of these accidents, it is said, might have been prevented.

¹United States Census, "The Blind in the United States" (1917), p. 98.

"Sore eyes" form another prominent cause of blindness, most of which could easily be prevented by proper medical attention. With babies, for instance, all that is usually needed to prevent loss of sight from the eye disease from which they frequently suffer is a weak solution of nitrate of silver dropped into their eyes at the time of birth. Taking all causes into consideration, one authority estimates "nearly two thirds of the blindness in the United States to be preventable."¹ By medical inspection in the schools, proper lighting, prompt attention to any trouble with the eyes, and adequate safeguards in factories and mines the number of the sightless would in time, therefore, probably be reduced to one third what it now is.

About 40 per cent of the deaf are deaf from birth. The deafness of the other 60 per cent is usually caused in childhood by diseases like scarlet fever, measles, meningitis, and adenoids, or, in later life, by accidents, catarrh, and old age; careful medical attention at the right time would prevent deafness in many of these cases. Since the tendency of deaf parents to have deaf children is over thirty times as great as for the entire population,² the prevention of their marriage with one another would also gradually reduce their numbers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What arrangements are there in your city or county for the education of the blind? for the education of the deaf? Does your state make any special provision for the education of either class? What kind of education is given each group?

2. Should money be given to beggars? Give reasons for your answer. Why do many cities have ordinances which forbid begging?

3. Look up the story of Laura Bridgman; of Helen Keller. Which had the greater obstacles to overcome? Who was the greater teacher—Dr. Howe or Miss Sullivan? Why?

4. Does your public library contain books for the blind? If not, ask the librarian where and how such books can be secured.

¹ H. Best, *The Blind*, p. 122.

² H. Best, *The Deaf*, p. 49.

5. If there are any blind people in your neighborhood, find out whether they have plenty of reading-matter.

6. What are the chief causes of blindness? of deafness? What are the chief preventives of these defects?

SECTION II. THE FEEBLE-MINDED AND THE INSANE

Differences in mentality. People differ in mentality quite as much as in height, weight, or complexion. Some are geniuses like Shakespeare, Napoleon, or Edison; the great majority are of ordinary capacity like most of us; the rest are unable to take proper care of themselves. While there are as many variations in mental ability among the different persons in each of these three classes as there are individuals in each group, there is usually little difficulty in distinguishing between geniuses, folk of ordinary capacity, and mental defectives.

Two classes of mental defectives. Mental defectives are of two very different kinds: (1) the feeble-minded and (2) the insane. The feeble-minded are those whose brains are so defective that they never develop beyond the stage of childhood. Though their bodies grow up, their minds remain childlike. For example, idiots (the most helpless of the feeble-minded) are mentally like one-year-old or two-year-old babies—they can neither talk nor understand when spoken to. Imbeciles, the class above the idiots, have the mentality of children between three and seven. Morons, the ablest of these groups, have minds like children between eight and twelve; they are in some ways the most dangerous of the feeble-minded, because, while they are irresponsible, it is oftentimes difficult to detect their condition until after they have done some terrible deed.

The insane, on the other hand, are those whose brains are diseased. Unlike the feeble-minded, who are usually defective from birth or early childhood, the insane for the most part are grown men and women. As a rule they have

played a useful and occasionally a brilliant part in life before they became insane. Frequently they can be cured. Though they are sometimes responsible for having diseased brains, they are not accountable for what they do while insane.

Treatment of mental defectives in former times. In the past the treatment of the feeble-minded and the insane varied greatly among different peoples and in different times. The ancient Spartans threw feeble-minded children into the Eurotas River. There are passages in Cicero which indicate that the Romans also destroyed such offspring. The Jews who lived in the time of Christ believed the insane were possessed by demons. Until little more than a century ago, in both Europe and America, dangerous madmen were loaded with chains and locked up in jails or poorhouses, and harmless lunatics and imbeciles wandered as beggars throughout the land. As late as 1848 a prominent man in Massachusetts said that Dr. Howe's report recommending the education of the feeble-minded was not only about fools but for fools.

First schools for the feeble-minded. But in Europe, meantime, the feeble-minded were already being educated. About 1798 a boy of eleven or twelve years of age was found wandering naked in a forest near Paris. He lived on acorns, nuts, and roots; oftentimes he walked on all fours like an animal; he fought with his teeth and finger nails; he knew no language and showed few signs of intelligence—he was, in fact, feeble-minded. Dr. Itard, medical director of the school for the deaf, became greatly interested in this boy and determined to educate him. For five years he worked earnestly, but though his efforts met with some slight success he became discouraged and gave up the task. Thirty-five years later, however, Dr. Seguin, one of his pupils, opened a private school in Paris at his own expense for the training of the feeble-minded. So successful were his experiments that within a few years similar schools were established in other parts of the world.

In our own country one of the first schools for the feeble-minded was established in Boston under the supervision of Dr. Howe. Dr. Howe had become interested in these un-

fortunates by working with a child who was not only blind but of unsound mind. By patient effort and proper medical care he improved its condition so greatly that he became convinced that if so much could be done for a mental defective who was blind, a great deal more could be accomplished for those who had their sight. About the same time news of the work of Seguin aroused the interest of other people, and in 1848 the Massachusetts legislature yielded to the popular demand and voted money to establish an institution for the care and education of the feeble-minded.

SAMUEL G. HOWE

Probably no American has ever done as much for the education of the blind and the feeble-minded as Dr. Howe. He was also active in prison reform and in the antislavery cause. One of his notable achievements was the publishing of the entire Bible in raised characters for the blind. He developed, too, numerous ingenious methods of teaching the feeble-minded. In much of his work he was ably assisted by his wife, Julia Ward Howe, the author of "The Battle Hymn of the Republic."

Need of institutions for the feeble-minded. Although institutions for the feeble-minded have multiplied in the last eighty years, the number in existence today is far short of that needed to care for those who should be within their

walls. According to experts, there are in the United States at the present time over four hundred thousand feeble-minded persons, one fourth of whom are children. Less than one eighth of these are in suitable institutions.

It is dangerous to permit these defectives, especially many of the morons, to live in a community free from oversight or control. According to one great authority probably half our criminals are mentally defective, an equal proportion of the paupers in our poorhouses are feeble-minded, over three fifths of the inmates of our reform schools are mentally irresponsible, and a large number of the victims of drugs and

A HOME FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED

The spacious grounds and well-lighted cottages make Letchworth Village—one of the New York state asylums—an attractive and healthful home for the feeble-minded.

intoxicating drink are from the same group. It should be added, however, that recent investigations indicate that feeble-mindedness does not play so great a part in causing dependency as was formerly believed.

Education of the feeble-minded. Little can be done for idiots except to satisfy their physical wants, but some of the imbeciles and most of the morons can be taught to care for themselves and to become partially self-supporting. Morons can usually be taught to read, write, and do easy problems in arithmetic. They can also learn simple manual and household arts. Girls can learn how to sew, crochet, knit, sweep, make beds, and cook. Boys can master simple

carpentry, weaving, basketry, mat-making, and gardening. When the feeble-minded are cared for in suitable institutions they are much happier and society is much safer than if they are allowed to live and mingle with normal people.

Treatment of the insane. Today the insane are regarded as unfortunates who need medical care, wholesome food, plenty of air and sunshine, and, so far as possible, useful

A SCHOOLROOM FOR FEEBLE-MINDED CHILDREN

Feeble-minded children like to string beads, cut pictures, and build with blocks. They are taught to weave mats, make baskets, and do simple carpentry. They also play games and enjoy marching to music.

tasks and simple pleasures. As a rule modern hospitals for the insane are large, roomy structures located within beautiful grounds and controlled by skilled superintendents and physicians. In many institutions the inmates do useful work and are provided with entertainments, games, and dances, which bring them much pleasure. Many regain their health and are able to return to their occupations and friends. Except in a few cases, where incompetent or cruel persons have secured control, the insane who prove incurable receive kind treatment and have as much happiness as their condition makes possible.

Causes and remedies. One investigator found that over 75 per cent of the cases of feeble-mindedness he examined were due to heredity ; 19 per cent came from accidents and diseases like influenza and epilepsy ; the remainder were caused by alcoholic liquor, drugs, immorality, blows on the head, and severe mental strain due to fear, worry, and anger. While there is considerable doubt that insanity runs in families, the other causes named above seem as applicable to it as to feeble-mindedness. Judging from the evidence, then, the best way to reduce feeble-mindedness is to place persons so afflicted in institutions so that they cannot reproduce their kind. Proper medical care in time of sickness, wider use of safety appliances in dangerous occupations, and the destruction of the liquor traffic will also aid in this reduction.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is the difference between a feeble-minded person and one who is insane? Should there be any important difference in the kind of treatment or training they receive? Explain.
2. How does it add to the happiness and welfare of the feeble-minded to live in institutions?
3. How are the feeble-minded cared for in your county or state? the insane?

SECTION III. CRIME AND CRIMINALS

Extent of crime. On the average more than one million persons throughout the world spend three hundred and sixty-five days in prison every year because of crimes which they have committed. And in addition to those who are punished, there are probably three times as many who escape capture or conviction.

In our own country almost one hundred and fifty thousand persons are confined annually in jails and penitentiaries. More crimes are committed here than in any other country in the world. During a recent year New York, with

a population less than London's, had six times as many murders; Chicago, which numbered barely two and a half millions that year, had twenty more homicides than all England and Wales, with a population of nearly forty millions. Crime is said to cost us \$30,000,000 annually, not counting the expense of police departments and criminal courts.

Kinds of criminals. The majority of criminals are young men between sixteen and thirty years of age. They are usually divided into three main classes: instinctive or hereditary criminals, occasional criminals, and professional or habitual criminals.

Instinctive criminals. Instinctive or hereditary criminals include all those who commit crime because of tendencies which they are supposed to have inherited from evil ancestors. Their number was formerly believed to be large. Families like the Jukes, in which there were many criminals, were thought to prove that one generation handed down instincts which caused the offspring to take to crime as readily as iron filings take to a magnet. Men who have studied the problem in recent years, however, believe that the tendency to crime, formerly thought to be hereditary, is caused instead by the bad surroundings in which such children grow up. In the case of the Jukes, for example, most of the children of one couple who moved from the old home to a new community became good citizens. In another instance a Juke baby adopted into a good home developed into a useful woman. As one writer says, "The trouble with the family was that every generation of little Jukes was taken care of by depraved Jukes."¹ In short, surroundings rather than blood seem to determine character.

To this conclusion the children of feeble-minded parents seem to be an important exception. As pointed out in the last section, feeble-mindedness is due largely to heredity, and the feeble-minded form a large portion of the criminal class.

¹S. G. Smith, *Social Pathology*, pp. 305-306.

A former commissioner of police in New York City says, "There are on the average twenty-five persons a day arrested in New York who are mentally defective." He then adds, "Such an individual more easily falls a prey to temptation, has less power of resistance, and is comparatively unable to hold to the ways ordered by the law-abiding majority."¹

Occasional criminals. Occasional criminals are those who commit crime from sudden temptation or from violent passion. Overpowered for the moment by strong emotion or pushed by grinding poverty, they do things which in calmer moments they would shrink from in horror. Crimes of this sort are frequently committed by persons who are under the influence of drugs or strong drink. At a gathering of New York police inspectors drink was generally agreed upon as the greatest single cause of crime. During "hard times" the ranks of occasional criminals are always increased by men who, unable to get work, become desperate over the needs of wife or children, yield to temptation, and steal. Recent studies indicate, however, that poverty is not an important cause of crime; there is probably less poverty in the United States than in any other country, but, as pointed out above, the rate of crime here is the highest in the world.

Professional criminals. Habitual or professional criminals have in the past been recruited largely from the ranks of occasional criminals. Sent to prison for some petty offense, the latter are frequently corrupted by the more experienced and hardened criminals and, when freed, adopt crime as an occupation. This result is also hastened by the fact that after their release the name "convict" often makes it difficult or impossible for them to secure a job; in discouragement or resentment they then often drift into a life of crime. In addition, some young men and boys, attracted by the excitement and adventure of such a career, as it has been pictured to them in sensational stories or in the "movies," deliberately become criminals; fortunately their number is small.

¹A. Woods, *Crime Prevention*, pp. 5, 62.

Former treatment of criminals in England. The belief that crime could be prevented by fear was held by most people until less than one hundred years ago. In England, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, for example, over two hundred offenses were punishable by death. To write a threatening letter, to snatch a handkerchief from a woman, or to rob a hen roost was to commit a crime which, like murder, was subject to the death penalty. Fear of severe punishment, it was believed, would keep men from committing crime. To add to this fear, as well as to punish lawbreakers, prisons were made places of horror. Oftentimes they were old castles with thick walls and dark, dismal dungeons; occasionally they were situated by rivers or ponds whose dampness increased their discomfort and unhealthiness.

In Bedford jail [in which John Bunyan, the author of "Pilgrim's Progress," was imprisoned for twelve years] the dungeons for felons were eleven feet below the ground, always wet and slimy, and upon these floors the inmates had to sleep. At Nottingham, the jail stood on the side of a hill, while the dungeons were cut in the solid rock; these dungeons could be entered only after descending more than thirty steps.¹

In holes like these, men, women, and children were crowded together regardless of age, sex, or offense. Debtors, thieves, murderers, and political offenders occupied the same quarters and received the same treatment. Frequently the prisoners were bound with heavy fetters to prevent their escape. In one jail they were chained to the floor with iron collars around their necks and heavy iron bars across their legs.² Starvation and disease were common; the death rate was frightful. Punishment, indeed, was inflicted; but, instead of its terrifying people into good behavior, it only hardened them, and crime, instead of decreasing, seemed rather to multiply.

¹ E. R. Pittman, Elizabeth Fry, p. 47.

² Ibid.

Former treatment of criminals in America. Conditions in America were little better than in England. Here, too, scores of crimes were punishable by death, while prisons were horrible. In Connecticut, as late as 1827, the state prison was an abandoned copper mine one hundred feet

PRISONERS AT WORK

These prisoners are laying a sewer on Welfare Island, formerly Blackwell's Island, New York.

underground. Prisoners were confined here at night with their feet fastened to heavy iron bars and their necks chained to the beam above. In the morning they were summoned to their work by the ringing of a bell and, singly or chained in groups of two or three, were brought through the trapdoor which opened from their gloomy dungeon. They "were heavily ironed and secured by fetters, and, being therefore unable to walk, made their way by jumps and hops. On entering the smithy some went to the side of the forges, where collars dependent by iron chains from the roof were

fastened around their necks, and others were chained in pairs to the wheelbarrows. The attendants delivered pickled pork to the prisoners for dinner at their forges, a piece for each was thrown on the floor, and left to be washed and boiled in the water used for cooling the iron wrought at the forges. Meat was distributed in a similar way for breakfast.”¹

Prison reform. But such terrible conditions could not last. In England during the latter part of the eighteenth century the interest of John Howard, a man of humble origin but well-to-do circumstances, was aroused. While on a voyage to Portugal, Howard had been taken prisoner by a privateer and for a time had been confined in a loathsome dungeon in Lisbon. When, several years later, he was made sheriff of his county he came into direct contact with English prisons. Shocked by the misery he found, he investigated the places of confinement of other communities and other countries and in time published his discoveries. His book created a sensation, and a demand for prison reform swept over England.

Before much was done, however, the French Revolution so occupied the attention of England that a generation passed by with the prisons practically unchanged. Then, renewed agitation by Elizabeth Fry and others gradually brought about improvements and a new attitude toward the criminal. About the same time similar changes took place in America, and today, instead of regarding terror as the best way to prevent wrongdoing, there is an increasing tendency to protect the community, first, by removing the causes of crime and, second, by reforming the criminal.

Prevention of crime. To remove the causes of crime it is now generally agreed (1) that efficient police service should be provided in both city and country; (2) that many of the feeble-minded should be cared for in public institutions where they cannot injure others nor reproduce their kind;

¹Quoted by B. G. Lewis, *The Offender*, pp. 19-20; see also E. Channing, *History of the United States*, Vol. III, pp. 570-572.

(3) that the sale of drugs and intoxicating drink should be prevented; (4) that books and motion-picture films likely to cause crimes should be prohibited; (5) that opportunities for work should be provided for all; and (6) that obedience to the law and respect for the rights of others should be emphasized in the home, the school, the church, and the newspapers.

A PRISON INTERIOR

This clean, well-lighted prison is in marked contrast to the places of confinement of a century ago.

Modern prisons. The reform rather than the punishment of the criminal is the chief aim in most modern prisons. The lock step, so common a few years ago and so crushing to a man's self-respect, has practically disappeared; the striped convict garb is being discarded; silence at mealtime is less frequently enforced; and the brutal punishments so universal in the old days are rarely used.

What is perhaps of greater importance as a reform measure than even this humane treatment is the effort in most penitentiaries to teach the inmates useful occupations, for it has been found that some criminals know no honest way

of earning a living.

Prison schools and libraries assist much in this educational work. Unfortunately the tasks in many prison shops are so out of harmony with all modern industry that they are nearly worthless for teaching a man a trade; a change in this respect is among the prison reforms most urgently needed.

Suspended sentence. The probation method of dealing with adults who have been found guilty of petty offenses has proved a valuable way of saving the occasional criminal.

The prisoners in the foreground are being taught to read and write. Those in the background are receiving instruction in such subjects as arithmetic, geography, and history. The mental abilities and educational needs of criminals vary most widely.

A PRISON SCHOOL

© Brown Bros.

Instead of sending a man to jail and thus depriving his family of his support, while at the same time placing the disgrace of the name "jailbird" upon him, the judge permits him to go home on probation or on a suspended sentence. So long as he behaves himself he remains free, but if he does wrong he is immediately subject to reimprisonment. The plan seems to

have worked well and is being extended rapidly. In New York 14,566 persons were on probation in 1918,—more than ever before,—and the number of inmates in reformatory institutions of the state had correspondingly declined.¹

© Ewing Galloway

THE BRIDEWELL, CHICAGO

This prison, or house of correction, is for idle and disorderly persons over sixteen years of age. Delinquent boys under sixteen are placed in a school where they are given educational and industrial training which is especially suited to their needs.

Indeterminate sentence. Another way to protect society and to reform the criminal is by the use of the indeterminate sentence. Under this sentence an offender is looked upon as a patient, and, just as a patient is not discharged from a hospital until he is cured, so a prisoner is confined until the prison officials are convinced of his moral recovery. He is then usually released on parole, but is subject to imprisonment without trial in case of misconduct. Some authorities

¹ *Survey* (December, 1918), Vol. XLI, p. 407.

believe that the parole system is abused and that society is seriously endangered by the release of men who should be kept in confinement.

Juvenile court. The most important reform in recent years in the treatment of lawbreakers is a new method of dealing with delinquent children and young people. Instead of

JUDGE LINDSEY'S JUVENILE COURT

Judge Lindsey is questioning these three boys concerning some offense with which they are charged. The man at the left is the probation officer. The woman at the right is one of the custodians of the detention home in which children are usually kept until their case is decided by the judge.

investigating cases like these in ordinary courts and in the customary way, special tribunals called juvenile courts have been set up in most large cities. Here, in a room resembling an office more than a court, the judge questions boys and girls who are charged with offenses, in order to find out what is best for them and the community, rather than with the purpose of punishing them. In this effort the judge is aided by a probation officer, who investigates the parents of the child, his home, the school he attends, and the character of his surroundings. Knowing these facts, the judge is able to decide whether the home is fit for the child or the child fit

for the home and whether, therefore, he should be left at home or placed in an institution. In either case he remains the ward of the court—if he is allowed to remain at home he is required to report at regular intervals to the probation officer; if he is sent to an institution the officials there must keep the court informed of his behavior.

Summary. In every community there are persons who, because of physical defects or moral weakness, need special care. Physical defectives include the blind and the deaf, the feeble-minded and the insane; moral unfortunates comprise the criminal class. In the old days physical defectives were usually feared and mistreated; in modern times many of them, especially of the blind and the deaf, are educated so that they become self-supporting and happy and of distinct value to the community. Even the feeble-minded, when cared for in suitable institutions, spend their days usefully and with a large degree of contentment; while the insane, under such treatment, are frequently restored to full mental vigor. Education is accomplishing much for inmates of prisons and reformatories, although, unfortunately, the industrial training given in these institutions is oftentimes ill suited for modern trades. Proper preventive measures would greatly reduce these unfortunate classes: medical care and suitable safeguards would cut down blindness to (roughly) one third its present extent and deafness to perhaps two fifths what it now is, while the prevention of the reproduction of the feeble-minded would probably reduce their number to one third or one fourth its present magnitude. The improvement of living-conditions, combined with proper moral and religious education, would go far to lessen the criminal class. Education, supervision, prevention, and cure are the chief watchwords today in the treatment of these unfortunates. Enlightened self-interest and self-defense, as well as sympathy and common decency, require that the community give especial care to those who are handicapped and that, in every way possible, it help them to help themselves.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is crime? What are its chief causes? Why are so many more crimes committed in the United States than in other lands?
2. Does severity of punishment tend to prevent crime? Are you sure?
3. Why should criminals be kept in confinement?
4. Report on the Jukes, the Kallikaks, or the Ishmaels (consult the encyclopedia; see also the reading-list).
5. Find out all you can about the life and work of one of the following: L'Épée, Haüy, Gallaudet, Samuel G. Howe, Seguin, Pinel, John Howard, and Elizabeth Fry (look them up in the encyclopedia or, better, in books in the library).
6. Why were persons who were handicapped with blindness, deafness, or insanity mistreated in bygone days? Can you find out how they were treated by such primitive peoples as the Indians, the Eskimos, and the Australian tribes?
7. What is the difference between a suspended and an indeterminate sentence? What are the advantages of each?
8. Should criminals be paroled? Give reasons. What does "parole" mean?
9. Should goods made by convicts be sold to the public? Give reasons.
10. Find out what you can about Judge Ben Lindsey and the Children's Court of Denver, Colorado. Is there a juvenile court in your community? If so, describe its work.
11. What can the school do to help persons who are physically or morally handicapped? What can the Church do?

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that the death penalty should be abolished.

Resolved, that kidnaping should be made punishable by death.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

The Greatest Accomplishment of Helen Keller
 How Laura Bridgman learned to Read
 How the Feeble-Minded are Educated

Occupations of the Insane
 The Treatment of Shell-shocked Soldiers
 A Visit to a Prison
 The Children's Court in our Community
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PART THREE. INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY

CHAPTER XIII

WORK AND THE WORKER

Let me but do my work from day to day,
In field or forest, at the desk or loom,
In roaring market place or tranquil room;
Let me but find it in my heart to say,
When vagrant wishes beckon me astray,
"This is my work; my blessing, not my doom;
Of all who live, I am the one by whom
This work can best be done in the right way."¹

HENRY VAN DYKE

SECTION I. WHY PEOPLE WORK

The Virginia gentlemen and work. Many of the Englishmen who first came to Virginia were members of the gentry. As gentlemen they had never been accustomed to work. All their lives they had been waited on by servants. They knew little or nothing about the tasks which faced them in the American wilderness, but, ambitious for wealth, they accepted, in some instances at least, even such fantastic descriptions of the New World as that of the dramatist Marston.

Golde is more plentiful there than copper is with us. . . . All their dripping pans . . . are pure gould; and all the chains with which they chaine up their streets are massie gold; all the prisoners they take are fettered in gold; and for rubies and diamonds they goe forth on holydayes and gather 'em by the seashore to hang on their childrens coates, and sticke in their children's caps.

The little vessel which brought these adventurers to Virginia had small cargo space and could leave food for only a few months; yet, eager to secure the riches of which they

¹From the poems of Henry van Dyke, published and copyrighted by Charles Scribner's Sons.

dreamed, the men spent their time foolishly searching for gold, silver, and precious stones, while their stock of provisions grew lower and lower. It was not long before the thoughtful ones saw with concern the coming of a day when, their supplies being exhausted, starvation would follow.

For a time some relief was gained by buying corn from the Indians. But the stores of the red men were scant, and, as the weeks passed, conditions grew steadily worse. In the crisis doughty Captain John Smith persuaded many of the men to drop their hunt for gold and to turn their efforts to the getting of food. The stubborn or lazy ones who hesitated or refused were quickly brought to terms by Smith's order that "he who will not work shall not eat."

SOME OF THE THINGS PEOPLE WANT

The articles seen in the picture were made by human labor. Nature does not provide all we want.

Work necessary to satisfy human wants. Captain Smith's rule is a simple answer to the question why men work. If the Jamestown gentlemen had found corn and potatoes as free and abundant as they found air and sunlight, it would not have been necessary for them to drop their fascinating hunt for riches and give their time and energy to tilling the soil. But corn, unlike air, is scarce—nature does not furnish it in quantities to be had for the taking; it comes only

in return for work. It is, in short, *wealth*; that is, something which satisfies human wants and which requires effort or work to obtain.

To put the same thought differently. All of us have wants; someone, in fact, has called us bundles of wants. To satisfy our desire for light and air nature furnishes inexhaustible supplies which may ordinarily be had freely. But to satisfy such wants as our desires for food, clothing, books, motor cycles, and jewelry we must work, because the supply of these things is limited and can be increased only by work. As one authority says:

If the wants of men could be supplied without work, there would be no farming, no manufacturing, no buying and selling, no paying or receiving of wages, no anything as we now know it in the world of industry. Indeed, one cannot imagine what kind of world it would be if everything men desire were as free as the air.¹

Occasionally, it is true, our wants may be satisfied without exertion on our own part. This is the case when we inherit money, receive gifts, or find a buried treasure. But even in these instances someone had to work to accumulate the money or make the gifts, and before we can exchange the treasure for food and clothing someone must have toiled to produce them. In short, our desire to have things which can be secured only through effort and to achieve goals which can be reached only by striving is the chief reason why we work.

Existence wants and cultural wants. The fine gentlemen who first settled Jamestown came to America, as we noticed, because they believed they would have no trouble in finding gold, silver, and precious stones. They had no intention of making Virginia their permanent home. They expected to return to England, when they had gathered sufficient treasure, to spend the rest of their days in luxury, with a stately mansion for a residence, numerous servants for attendants,

¹H. C. Adams, *Description of Industry*, p. 102.

gorgeous apparel for clothing, the best of foods and drinks on their tables, and nothing to do but amuse themselves. But as their stores diminished and starvation approached, these dreams became dim and the desire for treasure gave way to the more pressing need for food.

Like other men the Virginia settlers had, in fact, two kinds of wants—need for the necessities of life and need for its luxuries. The desire for luxuries drew them across the sea to the land of “pearle and gold”; once here, hunger and cold compelled them to drop their search for treasure and devote their efforts to satisfying the needs of the body.

These needs of the body, which we all experience, are called existence wants. They include food, clothing, and shelter; they are needs which must be satisfied in order that we may live. Cultural wants, on the other hand, are desires for that which makes life comfortable and pleasant, noble and refined. While existence wants, for instance, call for food to satisfy hunger and garments to keep the body warm, cultural wants demand delicacies for the table, finery for the person, artistic furnishings for the home, religion for the soul, and opportunities for travel, music, amusement, and recreation.

Contrast between existence wants and cultural wants. Unlike existence wants, which are few in number and rather easily satisfied, cultural wants seem to have no limit. The wants of the Indians, for example, were for the most part confined to the needs of existence. Their appetite for food was quickly gratified after a successful hunt; deerskin furnished excellent stuff for moccasins and clothing; bark and saplings were adequate for a tepee; flint, feathers, hickory, and birch bark provided materials for weapons, tools, and canoes. But as the Indians came into contact with the whites their desires multiplied both in number and in difficulty of satisfaction. This very increase became a sign of their progress in civilization, especially when it manifested itself in a desire for books and magazines, schools and churches; for the

character of the wants of a people and their ability to satisfy them are important indications of the state of civilization which they have attained.

Indeed, one of the chief causes of the lack of progress among the backward peoples of the earth is the fact that their wants are limited largely to their bodily needs. The famous negro leader, Booker T. Washington, tried constantly to make the members of his race dissatisfied with their one-room log cabins so that they would change their shiftless ways and become industrious citizens. A noted traveler tells of an African negro lad whose chief desire seems to have been to save enough money to buy several wives; that done, he would quit his job as guide and let them work for him the rest of his life. But one day he saw a steamer chair; immediately a new want arose, and although the money for the wives was practically complete he continued his work until he had earned the coveted chair. Could his wants only have been multiplied, so as to include the pleasures of the mind and soul as well as of the body, a motive for work would have been established which would have lasted through life. And could similar desires have been thoroughly awakened in his tribe, a foundation for incalculable progress would have been laid.

Standard of living. In a civilized community also human wants and their satisfaction are of great importance. If the *standard of living*—the wants of the people and their ability to satisfy them—is on the mere level of existence, life is sordid and dull. But whenever the family income permits the development of cultural wants, there is no limit to the advancement possible.

Investigations of family incomes prove that as the income increases, more and more of it is used for cultural purposes. This is, of course, what is to be expected, for, as pointed out above, the necessities of life are comparatively few and soon satisfied. A family of five with an income of \$2200 a year may have to spend \$2000 for necessities and

have but \$200 for comforts and luxuries; another family of equal size with an income of \$3000 must pay the same amount for necessities, but it will have \$1000 left for better food, clothing, and housing and for wider opportunities for recreation and education. It will, consequently, have opportunity for a higher standard of living.

Now what should the family income be? This is a hard question to answer. The needs of different persons vary widely in different communities and at different times. An automobile may be a necessity for a surgeon and a luxury for a lawyer. A few years ago a telephone was looked upon as a novelty; in many homes it is now regarded as a necessity. The same is true of many other articles and conveniences. In general, however, the family income should be large enough (1) to provide the members of the household with a sufficient amount of nourishing food and warm clothing, (2) to give them a comfortable home, (3) to enable them to meet without worry such rainy-day expenses as an occasional doctor's or dentist's bill, (4) to permit them to have a modest savings account and the protection of life-insurance and unemployment-insurance policies, (5) to make it possible for them to help support the Church and benevolent enterprises, and (6) to enable them to enjoy educational opportunities and wholesome means of recreation. These elements are considered by many people as the fewest possible for a desirable standard of living.

Wastes. The failure to have such a standard of living is in many cases due more to waste than to low income. American housewives, it is said, throw enough food into their garbage pails every year to feed over a hundred million people; farmers occasionally ruin valuable machinery by leaving it out of doors in all sorts of weather; children often tear their clothes, destroy their toys, and break furniture, dishes, and windows by rough and careless play. Such wastefulness lowers the standard of living and brings little in return to the wasters.

Millions of dollars are also lost every year in the buying of cheap shoes, shoddy clothing, and poorly made garments. Since such articles wear out in a short time, they really cost more in the long run than goods of superior quality whose original price may be higher. To purchase clothing which will look shabby in a few weeks or which will lose its shape after a wetting is wasteful even though it may be bought "at a bargain." Other familiar examples of waste are the discarding of half-used pencils, aimless scribbling in books and upon good writing paper, and the buying of toys and playthings which one tires of almost as soon as they are purchased. Most wasteful of all, perhaps, is the purchase of an insufficient amount of nourishing food, since undernourishment reduces vitality and makes one an easy prey to any contagious disease which may appear in the neighborhood or the community.

Whenever a great building burns to the ground or a millionaire gives a \$50,000 banquet, there are always those who say, "Well, this means work; it keeps money in circulation; it is a good thing for the community." Persons who make remarks like these do not realize apparently that the labor and the material required to replace the building destroyed by fire might have been used to erect another structure, and that the community, therefore, is poorer to the extent of one building. Nor do they consider that the money spent for

NEGLECTED FARM MACHINERY

This hay-loader has been left in the open field to rust and fall to pieces. Can you give instances of similar wastefulness in towns and cities?

an elaborate banquet to entertain a few people for an hour or two could, perhaps, have been used to build a mill or a factory which might have given work to hundreds of men

during an indefinite period. Were it not for careless picnickers the park attendants who must spend their time cleaning up the lawns might be able to lay out additional tennis courts and baseball fields.

This does not mean, of course, that it is necessarily wasteful to spend \$200,000 for a display like the New Orleans Mardi Gras, which lasts but for a few days, or to put \$100,000,000 into a world's fair which may continue for only a summer. Whether these expenditures are foolish or not depends largely on whether the people who witness such spectacles will receive sufficient gratification or education

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MILLIONS IN JUNK

This shop is piled to the ceiling with old magazines to be sorted and graded. What will then be done with them? Mention other things usually thrown away or destroyed which have considerable value when collected in large quantities. Has your school ever had a "newspaper-magazine collection campaign" to raise money for books, pictures, or playground apparatus?

from them to justify their cost. A man may set fire to his own barn, but the satisfaction he may get from the bonfire will be far outweighed by his loss. In the same way any expense out of keeping with the satisfaction it gives is foolish, wasteful,

and injurious to all concerned, because it destroys materials and labor which are needed to satisfy other human wants which are more important.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why do people work? Is it always from a desire to satisfy their material wants? Why do millionaires work?

2. What is the chief difference between work and play? When is a ball game work? When is it play?

3. In what way do the wants of a nation measure its civilization? Illustrate. What is meant by "civilization"? (Consult the dictionary.)

4. Report on the wants of some primitive peoples such as the Eskimo, the Tahitians, the Australian tribes, the African negroes, the Arabs, or the Tibetans. How can you tell which is farthest advanced in civilization?

5. What is meant by "standard of living"? How can you tell whether a given standard of living is high or low? What should a standard of living include? Explain.

6. Ask your father what his income was five years ago; then ask him what he did with it under these three heads: (1) food, clothing, rent, fuel, lighting; (2) education, recreation, Church, and benevolences; (3) savings, investments, and insurance (if you own your home, count taxes, repairs, fire insurance, and interest on the value of the property as "rent"). Obtain like information about his income last year. Can you now tell whether your standard of living has risen or fallen during the five years?

7. What is "waste"? Can you name three examples of waste in your own home? What do they amount to in money during one year? Mention any instances of waste which you have noticed in the groceries of your neighborhood; in the delivery of milk in your community.

8. What is a "bargain"? Give examples of bargains which you found expensive. When is it wasteful to buy bargains?

9. Thomas A. Edison, the inventor, who ordinarily spends from eight to eighteen hours a day in his laboratories and workshops, is said to have once remarked, "I think that I have never done a day's work in my life." What do you think he meant?

SECTION II. HOW GOODS ARE MADE

A wilderness experiment. Several years ago a man who wished to show that he was able to feed, clothe, and care for himself with no help from anyone else went to live alone for a time in the woods of northern Maine. At the edge of the forest he left all his belongings, including his clothing, and started into the wilderness. In the interesting book in which he describes his experiences he tells how he lived on wild berries and nuts, how he caught fish with his hands, how he clothed himself with the skins of animals, and how he built a shelter out of the bark and limbs of trees. He had to depend entirely, of course, on what he found in the woods and on his own strength and skill.

He quickly discovered that the catching of fish with his hands was difficult and uncertain, that he needed a weapon to overcome the wild beasts, and that it was almost impossible to skin an animal with his bare fingers. Accordingly, out of a sharp-edged stone he fashioned a knife; from another he made a hammer; from a piece of flint and a long stick he shaped a spear; out of cedar-bark fibers he wove a fishing-net; with sticks and stones and withes he prepared snares and traps. With these tools and weapons he found it much easier to satisfy his wants. At the end of several months he had not only supplied himself with plenty of nourishing food and warm clothing but had built a rude cabin and equipped it with numerous utensils and even with some of the comforts of life.

Direct and indirect methods of satisfying wants. The story of this adventurer illustrates the way man's methods of satisfying his wants have developed during the centuries. Dependent at first on his wits and fingers and on the materials supplied by nature, he relied, like the lower animals, largely on wild fruits, plants, and animals for food and clothing and on trees and caves for shelter. But almost from the beginning his method of satisfying his wants differed from that

of the lower animals in one important respect—instead of going directly after food and drink as they do, he discovered that a roundabout method was usually more effective.

To illustrate. The kingfisher swoops down into the stream and seizes a single trout with its talons; man first makes a net and then catches fish by the hundreds. The wolf pursues its prey on foot and kills it with teeth and claws; man first fashions himself an artificial tooth in the form of spear, arrow, or gun and with it brings down a deer or a buffalo at a distance. To quench their thirst bird and beast go to the lake or the river; man first makes iron pipes, builds a pumping-station, constructs an intake, and then forces the water into his home. In other words, by a roundabout method of first making tools—axes, knives, saws, bows and arrows, canoes, looms, factories, railways—and of taking time to tame animals like the dog, sheep, horse, cow, camel, and elephant, and by giving thought and effort to the harnessing of such natural forces as wind, water, fire, steam, and electricity, man has multiplied enormously his ability to satisfy his wants. In short, by his indirect method of action he has added the resources of capital to his own powers and to the materials furnished by nature.

Production. What is meant by production? What factors enter into it? What is their relation to one another? In order to appreciate how goods are made today and to understand the character of modern industrial problems, these questions must next be considered.

Production is a change in the form or place of a commodity which will increase the utility of the commodity; that is, its power to satisfy human wants. The changing of the wood in a tree into chairs or desks, the storing of ice in the winter for use in the summer, the shipping of oranges from California to Wisconsin, the cutting and polishing of diamonds, the cooking and serving of food, the filling of teeth, the assembling of flour, salt, and potatoes in a grocery, are all acts of production. A ton of iron ore brought from the depths

of a mountain satisfies certain human wants: when made into pig iron its ability to satisfy is increased; if changed into steel rails its desirability is still further enlarged; and if fashioned into watch springs its value is multiplied a thousandfold. Miner, smelter, roller, and watchmaker are all producers; by changing the place or form of the ore each

MINING COPPER IN MICHIGAN

W. EWING GALLOWAY

Some of the richest copper deposits in the world are in Michigan. Copper is used for telephone and trolley wires and for all sorts of electrical appliances. These miners are using a compressed-air drill. Point out the different agents in production which can be seen in the picture.

adds to its power to satisfy human wants. It is to results like these that we refer when we speak of man's creating wealth. He cannot, of course, make something out of nothing, but he can increase the utility, or want-satisfying power, of a commodity by changing its form or by changing its location in time or space. When he is engaged in the creation of such utilities or in performing services which satisfy other human wants he is engaged in productive labor.

Factors in production. *Natural resources.* In production, as we noticed in the story of the adventurer in the woods,

man uses two things—natural resources and capital. Natural resources include everything which is supplied by nature—water, soil, trees, minerals, wind, animals; that is, everything which nature gives man to work upon, plus the powerful forces she offers which may aid him in his work.

Capital. Capital is anything produced by work when it is used for further production; it is wealth used to produce wealth. It includes needles, fences, barns, telegraph lines, machinery, steamboats, railways, money, and anything else which man has made when he uses it to produce other things. Capital, in a word, consists of the tools man works with.

All capital comes from saving. The only successful way to obtain capital, therefore, is by making it worth while for people to save. For illustration, let us suppose that each of two boys, John and Richard, secures a paper route at the same time. Let us suppose, also, that each boy earns five dollars a week from his route. John spends his five dollars in having a good time; Richard, on the other hand, denies himself some pleasures and puts aside four dollars every week until he has saved enough to buy a bicycle. With his bicycle, or capital, he is now able to deliver twice as many papers as he could on foot and, in consequence, he increases his income to ten dollars a week; that is, with the help of his capital, which he secured by saving, he doubles his earning power. It was this hope of increasing his earnings which caused him to save.

Now most of us find it hard to wait for something we want. Like John, we would rather have an ice-cream cone today than tomorrow; a pair of roller skates this spring than next summer; a new suit or a new dress now than a year hence. The reason is plain. Today is here, but tomorrow may never come; the present is in our possession, but the future is always uncertain. Why, then, should we wait for something we want if we have the money to buy it now?

The feeling that today is more valuable than tomorrow is one reason why it is necessary to pay interest on capital.

People must be paid for waiting, for denying themselves satisfaction in the present for the sake of greater satisfaction in the future. True, some folk might save without this inducement because of their fear of a rainy day in the years to come, but even they would not save so much as if they were paid for saving.

Interest is necessary, in the second place, as a payment for risk. When one lends money, there is always some uncertainty about his getting it back. Even in the case of government bonds he cannot be absolutely sure he will be repaid, although the risk he runs is very slight. And when he lends money for the building of a railroad, factory, or ship the risk is greater. Few people, therefore, would be willing to venture their savings in any enterprise unless they were paid for taking the risk. For these two reasons—waiting and risking—capital can usually be secured only by the payment of interest. The rate of interest is ordinarily determined by the amount of capital demanded and the risk involved—where the amount is large and the risk great, interest will generally be high; where the amount is small and the risk slight, it will generally be low.

Labor. Many writers regard labor as a third factor in production. In every act of production, they say, labor, as well as nature and capital, plays a part. In cutting timber, for example, the woodsman furnishes the labor; the tree is the natural resource; and the axman's tools, the sawmill, and the railroads and wagons which bring the lumber to the builder, are capital. While such a conception of labor, as various economists have pointed out, is useful in figuring costs in lumbering, mining, and manufacturing, it is unfortunate in that it seems to put labor on the same level as nature and capital, whereas, in truth, labor is superior to both.

Man uses nature and capital in order to produce things to satisfy his wants. They exist for him, not he for them. Labor is his effort, either of mind or body, to make them satisfy his wants more fully. Labor is not something which

can be bought and sold like bricks and lumber: these things stand apart and are entirely separate from their possessors; what becomes of them after a sale—whether they are used for a sewer or a palace—is of no concern to the seller. But labor cannot be separated from the person who furnishes it: the kind of work he does and the conditions under which he toils are both matters which are of vital concern to him.

While labor is a factor in production, then, in the sense that it would be impossible to make things without it, it is on an altogether different plane from natural resources and capital. Capital, as pointed out above, is merely the product of labor when used to produce wealth. Its part in modern production is tremendous. But if it were all destroyed, though the loss would exceed all measurement, it could in

time be replaced providing man's powers and the resources of nature remained unimpaired. The relation which labor bears to production and to life is, in short, different from that of either nature or capital. Nature and capital are material things and exist for the service of mankind; labor involves human personality—it is mankind.

CANNING CORN

Our ancestors preserved fruit and vegetables by drying or spicing them. Today, instead, millions of bushels of such products are canned every year, and the canning business is one of our important industries. In this factory as many as ten million cans of corn are put up in a season. Name the natural resources and the capital goods which are used in this factory.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Is industrial education a roundabout way of satisfying one's wants? Explain. How can you tell whether an education will pay in dollars and cents?

2. Are the following engaged in productive labor: a newsboy; a bricklayer; a professional baseball player; a teacher; a motor-man; an actor; a musician; a barber; an aviator; a soldier; a preacher; an alderman; a schoolboy; a gambler; a policeman; a book agent? How can you tell? What is "productive labor"?

3. Define utility. Do the following have utility: sunlight; food; earrings; smallpox; water; street cars? Illustrate how man can create utilities. What utilities have you ever made?

4. Mr. Rockefeller's income is said to exceed \$30,000,000 a year. Is he denying himself anything when he invests \$1,000,000 in a new railroad? Explain.

5. In the Middle Ages it was considered wrong to charge interest on money because money, it was said, could not increase in amount, no matter for how long it was lent (see, for example, Shakespeare, *The Merchant of Venice*, I, iii). Comment on this passage in the light of the discussion in this section.

6. Why should labor not be considered a factor in production in the same sense as natural resources and capital?

SECTION III. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Early methods of production. To understand present-day methods of production it is necessary to go far back in history. The first seventeen centuries which followed the birth of Christ saw few important changes in the way in which men worked. During these years peasants tilled the soil with wooden plows, threshed their wheat with clumsy flails, and took their produce to market in lumbering, two-wheeled ox-carts; cobblers made shoes by hand and frequently sold them to customers in their own little shops; spinners spun thread on the old-fashioned spinning-wheel, and weavers wove it into cloth on heavy hand looms. Indeed, as historians have pointed out, could the farmers, cobblers, and cloth-makers who were

alive when the Wise Men from the East journeyed to Bethlehem have been permitted to return to earth about 1750 they would have felt very much at home, for they would have recognized with no difficulty the tools and methods of work with which they had been familiar so long ago. During these years few changes took place in the world of work.

A SPINNER IN A NORWAY HOME

The old-fashioned spinning-wheels and the flax-wheels, such as those shown in this picture, were marvelous devices and a great improvement over the distaff which preceded them. They are still used in out-of-the-way places.

But could some Rip Van Winkle who fell asleep in 1750 wake up today, he would feel like a stranger in a strange land. Instead of the sickle and scythe, his astonished eyes would behold the harvester; instead of the flail, he would gaze on the thresher; instead of spinning-wheel and loom, he would see with uncomprehending stare the complex machinery of the modern factory. For these changes and many others have taken place in the last one hundred and sixty

years as the result of what is usually called the Industrial Revolution. To that amazing movement let us now turn our attention.

Hargreaves and the spinning-jenny. In 1760 there lived in England a poor weaver named James Hargreaves. As he entered his home one day—so the story goes—he accidentally

upset his wife's spinning-wheel so that it lay on the floor with its spindle turning round and round. The idea suddenly occurred to him that he could invent a machine which, instead of making one thread at a time, would spin several and thus save a great deal of time and labor.

A MODERN SPINNING-MACHINE

This modern spinning-machine turns out hundreds of threads at a time, is never tired, and when worn out can easily be replaced. A worker can tend it after a very short training.

He succeeded in

making such a machine and in honor of his wife, whose name was Jenny, called his invention the spinning-jenny.

The new machine was so simple that a child could operate it. At first it would spin eight threads at a time, but before Hargreaves died he had so improved it that it would run off one hundred and twenty threads. Today one of the modern jennies turns out as much thread in a day as one thousand workers could have done in an equal time with the old-fashioned spinning-wheel.

Increased use of capital and the introduction of the wage system. From the birth of the spinning-jenny, conditions in the workaday world began to change. Capital began to play an ever-increasing part in production. The invention of

Hargreaves was quickly followed by other timesaving and labor-saving devices. The clumsy hand looms which had been operated in the homes or shops of the weavers gave way to heavy power looms. Wind, water, and finally steam were harnessed to the machinery to furnish power. Since mill races and steam engines cost too much to be used for a single loom,

A HAND LOOM

Hand looms are still in use in many places, especially in the making of rag carpets. Weaving with them is a slow and laborious process.

a large number of machines were brought together into one factory, and spinners and weavers, instead of making cloth at their own firesides, went to work in factories for a daily wage. With this increased use of capital and the introduction on a large scale of the wage system there originated the great problem of capital and labor. It will be discussed in a later chapter.

Specialization in industry. In most industries, in the second place, many different machines were invented one after another to do different parts of the work. Eighteen machines,

it is said, are now used in making a pin; over one hundred in turning out a pair of shoes; three hundred in producing a watch. As a result, instead of one person's making an entire watch, shoe, or needle, as in the days of our ancestors, labor is now divided so that eighteen, one hundred, or three

MODERN POWER LOOMS

Each of these looms can make many times as much cloth as could the old-time hand loom. One worker can usually look after four or six looms. Why did the invention of such machines make the domestic system of manufacturing impossible? How did they stimulate the growth of cities?

hundred persons have a hand in the job. The monotony and drudgery of making but a hundredth part of a shoe or a three-hundredth part of a watch have already been pointed out (p. 244).

Increase in output. In the third place, the coming of the factory, with its marvelous machines and its specialization of labor, greatly increased the output of manufactured goods. Under the old system of handwork a skilled worker could make fifty pins a day; now a mere girl aided by machines

can manufacture half a million. An old-time cobbler could make two pairs of shoes a day; a modern workman with the help of machinery can turn out five hundred pairs.¹ One writer estimates the vast quantity of goods made annually in the textile mills alone as equal to the work of fifty

TRACTOR PULLING HARROWS

The wooden plow of the Middle Ages has been succeeded by the steam plow and harrow, the sickle and the scythe by the mower and the harvester, the clumsy flail by the thresher. Name other instances of improved farm machinery.

billion slaves toiling without the aid of machinery from sunrise to sunset with no rest period every day in the year.

Changes in business organization. In the fourth place, the Industrial Revolution brought about a great change in the organization of business. Before the coming of the factory it was the customary thing, although there were exceptions, for a workman to own the materials he used and the tools or capital he worked with, while his own muscles and brain supplied the necessary energy and intellect for his business.

¹J. H. Robinson and C. A. Beard, *Readings in Modern European History*, Vol. II, p. 72.

But with the assembling of hundreds of expensive machines under a single roof and with the need for enormous quantities of raw material as supplies and thousands of individuals as laborers, the simple business organization ordinarily used in earlier days became impossible. Greater ability than most men possessed was needed to make the enterprise a success; more money than one person usually had was required to purchase the land, buildings, and equipment that were necessary in the industry; and of course the machines themselves had to have the attention of many workers. For these reasons there gradually came into general use in commercial and manufacturing undertakings, first, partnerships and, second, the complex business corporations of today.

The partnership. Partnerships and corporations can best be understood through an illustration. Let us suppose that Brown and Thompson are each engaged in the manufacture of flour. Owing to some new invention, perhaps, more money is needed to reëquip their mills than either man possesses. Accordingly the two men decide to form a partnership. A contract in the form required by law is drawn up, in which are stated the capital each man is to furnish, the share of profits he is to receive or the losses he is to bear, and the work he is to do. The partnership type of organization enables men to obtain funds to carry on a business which they could not undertake alone and, in addition, promotes business success by enabling each of them to specialize in whatever part of the enterprise most interests him.

But if the firm of Brown and Thompson is unable to pay its debts its creditors may sue the men individually to get their money, and if either member dies the firm must either be reorganized or cease to exist. It forces them, therefore, to risk their entire property in the undertaking and, at the same time, makes the continuance of the business depend on so uncertain a thing as a man's life.

The corporation. A realization of these defects and a need for more money to carry on their rapidly growing business,

let us suppose, lead Brown and Thompson to reorganize as a corporation under the name Brown and Thompson Flour Company. In accordance with the law a charter is obtained in which the capital, the nature of the undertaking, and the powers of the corporation are stated.

Now the capital, or stock, of corporations is represented by shares which are usually of a nominal value of \$100 each. After Brown and Thompson take for themselves as many shares as they think they can afford to carry, they offer the remainder for sale to the public. The shares are easily sold, we will suppose, because (1) the reputation of Brown and Thompson as successful business men is high, (2) the shares are sold for only \$100 each, and (3) the investors ordinarily risk only the money they invest. Officers and a board of directors to manage the business are then chosen by the shareholders. The latter are to receive profits in accordance with the number of shares of stock each person owns. By this plan a large sum of money is raised and the business is put on a more durable foundation than in a partnership, since it no longer depends on the life of one man. But, on the other hand, the efficiency and personal interest which usually exist in partnerships are frequently much less evident in corporations.¹

The corporation has shown itself so well-suited to the needs of modern business that, especially since the Civil War, it has been adopted in practically all industries. Probably nine tenths of our railroads, steel mills, mines, steamboat lines, and packing-houses are organized today as corporations. Since, as a rule, anyone who has money can buy shares of stock through a broker or banker, the owners of many of these corporations number thousands; some of our great railroads, it is said, are the property of more than one hundred thousand people. So great is the power of these concerns, especially since they began to form combinations

¹See L. S. Lyon, "Private Control of Industry," in *Lessons in Community and National Life*, A-20.

with one another, that the various states and the national government have found it necessary to attempt to control them by laying down the conditions on which they may be formed and the regulations under which they may do business. These efforts have not been entirely successful, and

DISTRIBUTION OF OWNERSHIP OF A LARGE CORPORATION

The figures indicate the number of shareholders in each state of a large packing concern, while the dots show their relative distribution. Stock is also owned by persons who live in other countries. Find out, if you can, to what extent the ownership of some factory or mill in your community is distributed.

the control of corporations, and combinations of corporations, is today one of our most difficult civic problems.

Summary. Our wants are the forces which make us work. Effort is necessary to satisfy these wants because the supply of goods which can satisfy them is scarce and can be increased only through effort. Human wants are of two kinds—existence wants and cultural wants. Existence wants—the actual needs of the body—are few in number and are easily satisfied. Cultural wants—desires for the refinements and luxuries of life—expand indefinitely and spur us on to

most of our efforts. Their extent and our ability to satisfy them form the best measure of our standard of living, or civilization, either as individuals or as a nation. Our standard of living is often kept at a low level on account of wastefulness rather than because of insufficient income.

Production is changing the form or place of something in order to increase its power of satisfying human wants. In production man uses two things—natural resources and capital. Natural resources include everything which is furnished by nature; capital, anything resulting from man's labor when it is used to further production. Labor, while indispensable to production, should not be thought of as similar to natural resources and capital: they exist for it, not it for them.

The Industrial Revolution was a change in production from handwork to machine work, from the domestic system to the factory system of manufacturing. Its most important results have been (1) the increased use of capital, (2) the wage system, (3) specialization in industry, (4) enormous increase in the output of manufactured goods, (5) the extension of the partnership and the corporation, and (6) the problem of capital and labor. The advantages of the corporation make it the favorite form of organization in the business world today. Giant corporations, or combinations of corporations, however, have become so powerful that it is necessary for the government to control their operations. At the present time they form one of our most difficult problems.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What was the Industrial Revolution? State its chief results.
2. Look up the life and work of James Hargreaves, Richard Arkwright, Samuel Crompton, Edmund Cartwright, James Watt, Eli Whitney, Robert Fulton, and George Stephenson. What was the chief invention of each? Which do you consider the greatest invention of all? Give reasons.

3. What is wealth? Under what circumstances may sunlight become wealth? Are the following wealth: a motor cycle; fresh air; flies; pure water; a loaf of bread; mosquitoes; money; a warship; a dog; whisky; a fountain pen; a book in a library; salt in the pantry; a kite; a pair of scales; a baseball bat; a camera; a public park; a vacant lot; an automobile; a lawn-mower; a gambler's pack of cards; a glass eye?

4. Did the man who lit a cigar with a five-dollar bill destroy wealth? Explain.

5. What is meant by the wage system? What seem to be its chief advantages and disadvantages?

6. What different kinds of business organization are there in your community? Explain and illustrate each kind.

7. Are the things named in the third question capital? Explain.

8. State the advantages and disadvantages of a partnership; of a corporation.

9. In your American history find out what you can about efforts to regulate corporations. Would it be a good thing to abolish corporations? Explain.

10. During the World War many cities, villages, and railways in northern France were destroyed; this will give work to thousands of men for years to come; the destruction was therefore, at least in part, a good thing. Comment on the foregoing statements.

11. Does the world owe anyone a living? Explain.

QUESTION FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that in all occupations in which it can be applied, wages should be based on piecework rather than on hours of toil.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

What I intend to be
The Work of Indian Women
How Hats are made
How I earned my First Dollar
The Making of Cloth
Expert Salesmen I have seen
How to get a Job
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CHAPTER XIV

THE EXCHANGE OF GOODS

Nature seems to have taken a particular care to disseminate her blessings among the different regions of the world, with an eye to their mutual intercourse and traffic among mankind, that the nations of the several parts of the globe might have a kind of dependence upon one another, and be united together by their common interest.—JOSEPH ADDISON

SECTION I. WHY MEN EXCHANGE GOODS

The Industrial Revolution and economic interdependence. Before the coming of the factory each family as a rule was able to supply itself with the necessities of life. On the little plot of land about the home, vegetables, fruit, and grain could be raised and chickens, geese, pigs, and a cow or two could be cared for. Within the house and neighboring sheds tools could be hammered out, thread spun, cloth woven, and garments made. In this way food, clothing, and shelter were obtained with little dependence on the outside world.

But with the coming of the factory and the growth of cities a great change took place. In the city it would have been impossible, of course, for a workman to have several acres of farm land, even if he could have found time to cultivate them, and it became necessary, therefore, for him to depend on others for most of the things he had formerly produced. At the same time the goods made in the factory had to be disposed of in distant markets, because the quantities turned out were far greater than the workers themselves could use.

Specialization in industry. This situation furnishes one of the important reasons why men need to exchange goods. By specializing—doing the same thing over and over—a worker

becomes very skillful and can turn out many more goods than if he scatters his energies over many lines of work. Men have found, therefore, that it pays to center their activities in one industry and even to divide the work within that industry into many distinct operations, each to be done by a different person. As a result of this specialization the

PUMPKIN FIELD

© Ewing Calloway

The people here may like pumpkin pie, but they would find it difficult to use all these pumpkins, so some will doubtless be shipped away. What do the farmers in your part of the country do with their surplus crops and live stock?

exchange of goods has become a necessity. A worker in a cotton mill cannot eat calico, a glass-blower cannot dwell in a bottle, and a farmer would have difficulty in clothing himself with straw or cornstalks. Each finds it to his advantage to exchange some of the products of his labor for the products of other men's labor.

Differences in natural conditions. A second reason for exchanging goods is the difference in temperature, rainfall, and resources of various parts of the earth. In Florida and Cuba, cotton, oranges, and bananas flourish, while wheat,

apples, and flax cannot be grown successfully; in Michigan, Minnesota, and Illinois, on the other hand, wheat, flax, and apples are easily produced, while it is impossible to raise tropical fruits except in greenhouses. In cases like these exchange is advantageous to both sections. In like manner there are districts well suited for dairying, but poorly fitted for fruit-growing; some which are ideal for fruit-growing, but handicapped for raising rice; others which are adapted to rice-raising, but of little use for dairying. In order that each district may share the advantages of the others, exchanges must be made. Indeed, even in the days before the factory these conditions caused an exchange of goods between the far quarters of the earth. The English weaver might supply himself with the necessities of life, but he had to depend on the distant Indies for pepper, cinnamon, and nutmegs.

Variety in human tastes and needs. In the third place, exchange of goods is desirable because the tastes and needs of different individuals, communities, and nations are not the same. The Indian longed for the rifles of the white trader; the trader wished the beaver skins of the Indian. In the time of Columbus the people of the Orient desired the linens of Europe; the Europeans eagerly sought the silks and tapestries of the Orient. Nowadays a hunter owning a Scotch collie might well trade dogs with a shepherd possessing a good setter, and both men gain by the exchange. Such transfers have the advantage of increasing the want-satisfying power of what is exchanged and therefore benefit all concerned. For these reasons—specialization in industry, differences in natural environment, and variety in tastes and needs—men exchange goods.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Did you ever swap anything with someone else? Why did you do it? Compare your reasons with those given in the text for the exchange of goods between men. Which of the three reasons do you consider the most important?

2. What is meant by specialization of labor? Give illustrations from the industries in your neighborhood. How does specialization make an exchange of goods necessary?

3. What commodities are raised or manufactured in your community which are shipped to other parts of the world? Name goods used in your home which come from other parts of the world.

4. Does each party to a fair exchange profit? Explain.

SECTION II. HOW THE VALUE OF GOODS IS DETERMINED

Value and price. In any exchange of goods it is necessary to determine their relative value before transfers can be accomplished. As used here, "value" means the power of a commodity to command other commodities in exchange for itself. A bushel of wheat, for example, may be exchanged for two bushels of corn, three bushels of oats, or two and a half dollars; if so, its value is two bushels of corn, three bushels of oats, or two and a half dollars. The "price" of any article is merely its value expressed in money; in the instance just given the "price" of a bushel of wheat is two and a half dollars.

Now what determines the value, or exchange power, of commodities? It is not simply their utility or want-satisfying power, although that will have a great deal to do with it; in fact, commodities will have no value at all unless they have power to satisfy human want. But sunlight, which satisfies a want so great that nothing can really take the place of it, usually has no exchange power whatever. Nor is value determined by the beneficial qualities of goods: air is so essential that if we were deprived of it we should die very quickly, but in ordinary circumstances air, like sunlight, is so abundant that it cannot be exchanged for anything else and it has therefore no value. A barrel of whisky, on the other hand, although it ordinarily is not beneficial to the consumer and is even injurious to him, has high value, for it can command many goods in exchange for itself. The value of goods, in short, is determined by their

want-satisfying power and by their scarcity; or, to put it differently, their value depends on their utility and on the supply of and demand for them.

Supply and demand. By "supply," as here used, is meant the amount of any commodity offered for exchange at a given time, not the total stock or quantity of the commodity in

GENERAL OFFICE OF THE SELLING DEPARTMENT OF A LARGE CORPORATION

This picture gives some idea of the amount of work involved in the exchange of goods. Are the people who work in offices like this producers of wealth?

existence. By "demand" is meant the desire for any commodity at a given time, with an ability and willingness to sacrifice for it; "demand" does not mean a mere want for an article unless the want is backed up by an ability and willingness to pay the price asked for the article. Usually, if the sum offered for certain goods is raised, the supply of such goods available for exchange will be increased; and, similarly, if the supply at any time becomes notably increased, the sum offered will tend to decrease.

This result takes place because, though the number of our wants seems to be without limit, any particular want can be satisfied; and as the point of complete satisfaction tends to

be reached, the desirability of the commodity in question decreases. A hungry man, for example, will devour a sandwich eagerly; he will eat a second, third, or fourth with pleasure; but as he approaches a fifth, sixth, or seventh his hunger becomes satisfied, enjoyment wanes, and continued eating eventually brings pain. To satisfy his hunger, then, a starving man in a wilderness might be willing to give a large sum of money, if necessary, for a single sandwich, but he would not be willing to give so large an amount for a second, and the prices he would offer for a third, fourth, fifth, or sixth would steadily grow less and less until, as his appetite became satisfied, he would be unwilling to offer anything for a seventh or eighth.

Under such circumstances a grasping individual who had only one sandwich he was willing to part with might secure almost any sum for it, but if there were a number of persons offering sandwiches, and each wanted to sell all he had, the amount which could be received for each sandwich would be no greater than the value of the last one. If, however, the supply remained the same, but the demand increased, as it would if there were two starving men to be fed, then the price would rise. Thus it is that changes in supply or demand set the rate of exchange and determine the value of goods. It must be remembered, of course, that as business is now carried on, the value of any commodity is usually fixed by the total amount of it supplied to and demanded on the market at any one time—and this may mean in all the world, as is, in fact, usually the case with such commodities as wheat, sugar, and cotton.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is value? What determines the value of goods? Give illustrations other than those in the text.
2. What is meant by the price of an article? Does money have any price? How is the price of anything determined?
3. What is meant by the word "market" as used in this section?

4. What is the difference between desire and demand? When does desire become demand? How do merchants try to change desire into demand? Illustrate from advertisements in your local newspapers; from what you saw in the store windows as you came to school.

SECTION III. HOW WEIGHTS, MEASURES, AND MONEY DEVELOPED

Exchange by barter. In very early times and among primitive peoples today exchanges are frequently made by barter. The negroes in central Africa, for example, are accustomed to trade ivory tusks and gold dust for mirrors, ribbons, and liquor. In rural communities it is common for a farmer's wife to barter butter and eggs at the local store for calico, notions, and groceries. Most boys at some time in their lives have swapped knives or marbles with their playmates. Exchanges like these, in which articles are given in direct exchange for other articles, are called transfers by barter.

Weights and measures. As civilization advanced and exchanges became more frequent, means of estimating accurately the quantity and value of goods became essential. Skins had to be counted, cloth had to be measured, grain needed to be weighed, in order to be exchanged for other commodities. These needs led to the gradual development of methods of counting and of the systems of weights and measures in use today.

At first men used different parts of the body to indicate various lengths: they spoke of a horse as so many "hands" high, of a spear as so many "feet" long, and of a temple as so many "cubits" wide (a cubit was the distance from the elbow to the end of the second finger). But hands, feet, and arms vary in length, and a system of measurement based on them was very inaccurate and unsatisfactory. Even greater difficulty was encountered in determining weights—stones were unequal in weight, and even grains of wheat differed.

Finally, after all sorts of experiments, governments began to set the standards in order to prevent the use of false weights and measures. In our own country today standard weights and measures made of platinum are kept under careful guard at the Bureau of Standards in Washington. From them copies are made which are used all over the United States. In order to protect the people from dishonesty the government officers test the scales and measures that are in use; offenders are punished by heavy fines and at times by imprisonment.

Difficulties in barter. It is almost impossible at times to exchange goods by barter. Let us suppose that Farmer

BALANCES FOR DETERMINING WEIGHTS

The Bureau of Standards at Washington maintains the standard of all weights and measures which are used in this country. The larger of the two balances weighs a load of two pounds to an accuracy of one fifty-millionth of a pound.

Jones, for example, has more potatoes than he can use, but is in great need of a horse. He will probably have a hard time finding a man with a desirable horse who wishes to swap his horse for potatoes. And it always takes two to make a bargain. Even if he is successful in his search, the two men will find it difficult to estimate the quantity of potatoes the horse is worth. In other words, trade by barter is difficult, in the first place, because it is hard to find someone who has what the trader wants and who at the same time desires what the trader offers; it is difficult, in the second place, because,

even if two such persons meet, it is hard to determine the relative value of the goods which are offered for exchange.

The services of money. These difficulties led in very early times to the use of money, for money enables exchanges to be made which could hardly be brought about by barter. While Farmer Jones will doubtless have trouble in trading his potatoes for a horse, he will experience no difficulty in disposing of them for money, and with money he can easily purchase a horse. Smith, who owns the horse, may be unwilling to barter it for potatoes because he already has as many potatoes as he can use, or he may not like potatoes; but he will not hesitate to part with it for money, for with money he can buy harness, tools, furniture, or whatever other articles he may want. Money, in short, is a medium of exchange established by law; men are willing to accept it for their goods because with it they can purchase the things they desire.

A second service money performs is as a measure of value. When we examine articles with a view to purchasing them, money enables us to measure their value in the same way that a yardstick enables us to measure the length of a room. For example, suppose a trader estimates the value of a blanket at three beaver skins, a rifle at twenty, and a mirror at one; let us also suppose he reckons the value of a marten skin as half that of a beaver skin, a sable fur as three beaver skins, and a silver-fox fur as thirty beaver skins; that is, in all these cases the trader uses a beaver skin as a kind of money with which to measure the value of blankets, rifles, mirrors, and of marten, sable, and silver-fox furs. In such circumstances an Indian with a pack of marten, beaver, sable, and silver-fox furs will have no trouble in exchanging them for mirrors, blankets, and rifles, because the value of the furs he offers and the articles he wishes can easily be measured and the exchange be carried through fairly. To do this it will be necessary to know only the value in beaver skins of the articles to be exchanged. But to carry out an exchange

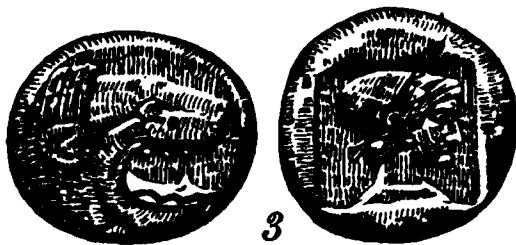
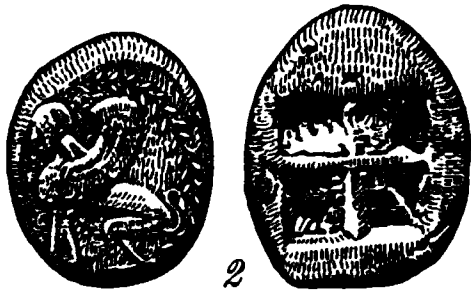
by barter in which these articles enter, it will be necessary to know more than twenty different values. When the vast variety of goods bought and sold today is brought to mind the impossibility of exchanging them by barter is apparent and the importance of money as a measure of value can be seen at once. These two services of money—as a medium of exchange and as a measure of value—explain in large part its importance in modern business.

Commodities used as money. Many things have been used as money at different times in the history of the world. The early Romans measured values in terms of cattle; the New England colonists in their trade with the Indians, in beaver skins; the Virginia planters, in tobacco; the American pioneers, in whisky; the ancient Spartans, in iron; the early Norwegians, in wheat; the Britons, in tin; the Russians, in tea; the Icelanders, in dried codfish; the American Indians, in beads, shells, fishhooks, furs, and, in parts of California, the red scalps of woodpeckers. But of all the commodities which have served as money in different parts of the world, gold and silver have proved the most useful.

Qualities of money. Now why were these various articles used as money? And why have gold and silver come to serve this purpose in all civilized countries today?

If the different commodities mentioned above are examined, it will be seen that in the communities where they were used they possessed qualities which made them desired by everyone. Among a pastoral people like the early Romans, for example, cattle were desired because they were useful for food and clothing and could easily be added to or taken from a herd; it was natural, therefore, for such a people to estimate tools or weapons as worth a certain number of cattle, and thus cattle came to serve as money. In trading with the Indians the whites were always eager to secure beaver skins; before long, therefore, it became customary for them to refer to a gun or a blanket as worth so many beaver skins, and beaver skins accordingly became

money. In their dealings with one another in colonial days the Virginia planters, having few coins and finding there was a constant demand for tobacco, formed the habit of valuing



EARLY COINS

Coins were probably used first in China, next in Lydia (in western Asia), and then in Greece and Rome. The early Lydian and Greek coins shown above were made by stamping a design on small lumps of metal, as shown at the left. The imprint of the anvil which held the metal is shown at the right (1 and 2). Later a pattern was also placed on the anvil, and the result is shown in the last example (3).

slaves, horses, and farm implements in terms of tobacco. In like manner the ancient Spartans, who were a war-like people, desired iron because it could be made into excellent swords and spearheads; the Icelanders valued dried codfish because they considered it one of the most desirable of foods; the Russians were especially fond of tea. Thus cattle, beaver skins, tobacco, iron, dried codfish, and tea each came to serve as money.

In many instances these different commodities could be carried about easily, for the most part they were durable, and in some cases they could be divided into portions small enough to serve as mediums of exchange even where inexpensive articles were concerned. On the other hand, some were bulky, many were hard to divide without lessening or destroying their value, and practically all were injured by much handling. Consequently they all gave way to gold and silver, which, while possessing practically all the merits, have few of the defects of these other commodities.

Qualities of gold and silver. Gold and silver are desired by all people because of their beauty. In the form of jewelry, vases, or tableware they can be used to adorn the body or decorate the home. In the second place, they are durable;

if they are exposed to the air or wet by the rain or buried in the ground or sea, they suffer no injury. They represent, in the third place, great value in little bulk: a small fortune in gold can be carried about with no serious difficulty because its value is high compared with its weight; a single ounce of pure gold is worth \$20.67 and occupies a very small space. In the fourth place, both silver and gold can be divided easily into small parts; they serve admirably, therefore, as accurate measures of value, even for the least expensive of goods. Finally, since the amount of these metals mined from year to year does not vary greatly, their value does not change suddenly. Because of these qualities—beauty, durability, portability, divisibility, and uniformity of value—gold and silver have gradually displaced all other substances as material for money.

Government coinage of money. Centuries ago gold and silver when used as money were usually in the form of small bars which were accepted by merchants only after their purity and weight had been tested. This was both tedious and difficult, and merchants gradually adopted the plan of stamping on the bar their names and the weight and purity of the metal. If their reputation for honesty was high the bar was usually accepted without question. But since an error of a fraction of an ounce meant a severe loss to the buyer or the seller, and since the need for complete accuracy and for protection against fraud was great, governments finally took over the whole matter of coinage. Nothing is money today until the stamp of the government has been placed upon it and until individuals have been compelled by law to accept it in payment of debts.

Gold standard. In the United States at the present time, as well as in most other countries, gold is the standard metal; that is, the value of anything used as money is measured in terms of gold. By a "dollar," for instance, is meant a gold piece containing 25.8 grains of metal, nine parts of which are fine gold, or a piece of money which can be exchanged

for such a gold piece. In other words, if a gold dollar were melted, the metal would still be worth a dollar, while a silver dollar if melted would be worth more or less than a dollar,

owing to the market value of silver.

A few years ago, for example, the silver in a dollar was worth only fifty cents; if at that time the coin had been melted, one would have been able to obtain for the metal only fifty cents; people were willing in those days to accept a silver dollar as a "dollar" only because they were certain that the government was ready at any time to give them a gold dollar for it; it was valued in terms of the gold standard.

MAKING TWENTY-DOLLAR GOLD PIECES

This machine can punch out four hundred and fifty twenty-dollar gold pieces every minute. Those of correct weight are then put through machines which stamp the design upon them and mill their edges. When they have again been weighed and tested for purity, they are ready for circulation.

Kinds of money. The chief kinds of money made by the United States today are gold, silver, nickel, and bronze coins and paper money such as bank notes, Treasury notes or "greenbacks," silver and gold certificates, and Federal Reserve notes. Coins like the half dollar, the quarter, and the dime are issued primarily to help "make change"—their value as metal is much less than their value as coins.

Paper money is useful chiefly because it represents high value in little bulk and is therefore very easy to carry about. One hundred dollars in silver or even in gold is bothersome in one's pocket, while a paper bill of the same amount weighs but a trifle. Paper money also costs very little to make, and when worn out it represents only a slight loss. Coins, on the other hand, are expensive to make and, notwithstanding their hardness, soon lose weight from friction when carried about; thus a considerable waste takes place. In itself, of course, a paper dollar is practically worthless, and people are willing to accept it at its face value only because the government is back of it and will redeem it on demand in gold.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How often are the scales in the stores of your neighborhood tested? Who tests them? How? (Ask your grocer or druggist.)
2. Is there any difference between money and wealth? Explain.
3. Does the value of money ever change? How can you tell? What is meant by "inflation of the currency"? (Look up "inflation" in the dictionary.) What are the chief results of inflation?
4. In what way does money differ as a measure from all other measures?
5. What makes money valuable? Is it valuable because it is stamped by the government? Is there any way to measure its value? Would the material of which money is made have value if it were not used as money? If so, does this apply to all cases? Explain.
6. What would you be worth at your weight in gold? in silver?
7. Can gold be more valuable in one country than in another? Explain.
8. In your American history look up the election of 1896. What was the chief issue? Why was it regarded as so important?
9. Why should a design be stamped on a coin? Why are the edges of coins milled?
10. What is counterfeiting? How is it punished? Why is it punished so severely?

. 11. What is meant by the "gold standard"? What would it mean if we had a "silver standard"? Would the adoption of a silver standard make any practical difference to business? Explain.

SECTION IV. HOW CREDIT AIDS EXCHANGE

Credit. Over nine tenths of the business of the world is carried on without the direct use of money, by means of credit. Credit involves the securing of goods at one time and the paying for them at a later time. It is based upon the confidence of the seller or the lender in the ability and willingness of the buyer or borrower to pay later for what he now receives. When a housewife purchases groceries from day to day and pays for them the following month, she has what is called "book credit"; when a farmer buys a reaper and signs a paper promising to pay for it in six months, he signs what is called a "promissory note"; when goods are paid for by giving the seller an order on a bank in which the buyer has funds, the buyer makes out what is called a check. These are all forms of credit.

Promissory notes and checks, although forms of credit, frequently serve as money, for the receiver may, if he wishes, "indorse," or sign, the note or check on the back and give it to someone else in payment of a debt or purchase. In the case of a promissory note, it is true, the receiver will "discount" it before he will accept it; that is, he will subtract from the amount of the note interest for the time which remains until it is to be paid. A seller or creditor, of course, cannot be forced to accept checks or promissory notes against his will, for they are not legal tender.

Development of banking. The most important modern agency for credit is a bank. Its work can best be understood by knowing how banks came into existence. In the Middle Ages usually the only people who had vaults or strong-boxes were the goldsmiths. To these men, merchants were accustomed to bring for safekeeping money which they did not

want to use immediately, receiving in return a receipt which they were to present when they wished their money returned to them. This protection proved so attractive that in time large sums accumulated in the strong-boxes of the goldsmiths. Finding that few receipts were handed in for payment on the same day and that, in consequence, they always had large amounts of gold and silver on hand, the goldsmiths began to lend money to people who wished to borrow and who they believed would be able and willing to repay the loan when it became due; or, in other words, they lent to those who were able to give good security and in whom they had confidence.

The merchants made no objection to this arrangement, since they were able to withdraw their funds whenever they wished. In fact, they welcomed the new plan, because the goldsmiths not only ceased charging them a fee for keeping their money but began paying them interest on the funds they had deposited, and at times lent them money to meet their own financial needs. In addition, merchants discovered that, instead of paying a debt in gold and silver, it was safer and more convenient to send an order to the goldsmith or to sign their deposit receipt directing him to pay to the person named the sum specified. The receiver, in turn, instead of presenting the order to the goldsmith, frequently found it convenient in meeting a financial obligation to give the same slip, after he had signed it, to his creditor. Thus the order or receipt became itself a kind of money. It was in this way that checks originated. Meanwhile, many goldsmiths found that the receiving and lending of funds was more profitable than their trade as goldsmiths, and as a result they began to give all their time to the new business. Thus it was that banking developed.¹

Chief services of a bank. This brief sketch illustrates the chief functions of a modern commercial bank. As a receiver

¹H. G. Moulton, "The Commercial Bank and Modern Business," in *Lessons in Community and National Life*, A-22.

of funds it is a place of deposit; as a lender of money it is a place of discount. By these services it makes available for business purposes large sums of money which if scattered among its many depositors would be practically useless in aiding production. So important is this contribution of banks

ENTRANCE TO A BANK VAULT

Modern banks take every possible precaution to protect their money and securities. Many of them also rent boxes to people who wish to keep their valuables in a safe place. In addition to the use of time locks and armor-plate vaults, banks usually employ watchmen and carry insurance against loss by fire and burglary.

to modern industry, which in over 90 per cent of the cases is conducted on borrowed funds, that banks are frequently called factories of credit. In addition to aiding business by extending credit to responsible persons and companies, banks serve the community by encouraging thrift, by furnishing places in which money can be safely deposited, by making

payments easy through checks and drafts, and by aiding their customers in making safe and profitable investments.

Banking laws. Experience with dishonest and foolish bankers gradually taught people that greater safeguards were needed in banking than were necessary in other lines of business. In early days in our own country, especially in the West, many banks were opened by men who had little capital and less character. These "wildcat banks" frequently failed, with heavy losses to their depositors. Moreover, by their willingness or refusal to extend credit to individuals or to companies the great banks at times created or destroyed industries and even entire communities. As a result of experiences like these the strict banking laws of today slowly developed.

At the present time banks may be organized only after they have conformed to the state or national laws governing banking. These laws usually contain requirements as to capital, loans, cash reserve, and supervision. To enforce these regulations, inspectors at frequent intervals examine the banks and thus protect the community.

Federal Reserve banking system. The most important development in banking in the United States in recent years was the organization in 1913 of the Federal Reserve banking system. For many years it had been difficult in the West and the South for buyers to get enough money to handle crop transfers at those seasons of the year when the crops were marketed. At such times they needed more money than they could borrow in the local banks, and business consequently was seriously hindered. To remedy these and other difficulties Congress passed the Federal Reserve Banking Act.

By this act the country is divided into twelve districts in each of which a Federal Reserve bank is located. All national banks and such state banks as wish may become members of the system by fulfilling the requirements of the law. Member banks are able to secure Federal Reserve notes (a kind of paper money) by sending first-class securities

or "commercial paper" (that is, promissory notes and other similar obligations) to the Federal Reserve bank in their district. In this way they can obtain funds to meet the financial needs of their customers. Since the member banks are required to keep a portion of their funds in the local reserve bank, the money of the district is made more available for business needs than before the act was passed. In a somewhat similar way the system centralizes the money of the country.

The Federal Reserve system is controlled by a Federal Reserve Board of seven members. The Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency serve on this board; the other five members are appointed by the president with the approval of the Senate. An advisory council composed of one representative from each Federal Reserve district suggests such action from time to time as it thinks desirable. Each of the twelve Federal Reserve banks is supervised by a board of nine directors, of whom six are chosen by the member banks and three are appointed by the central Federal Reserve bank. By centralizing money and sending it from place to place as it is needed, and by issuing bank notes to meet special emergencies, the Federal Reserve system has given valuable assistance to the business interests of the entire land.

Federal land banks. In 1916 Congress created twelve land banks, which do for the farmers what the Federal Reserve system does for the business men of the country. From these land banks farmers can borrow money at a low rate of interest with a long period for repayment by pledging their land as security. In this way they are able to equip their farms with live stock, up-to-date machinery, and suitable buildings. The land banks are controlled in much the same manner as the Federal Reserve system. In addition to the Federal Reserve banks and land banks, there are various state banks which render important services to the communities in which they are located.

FEDERAL RESERVE DISTRICTS

The figures indicate the different Federal Reserve districts, and the cities in heavy type the places in which the Federal Reserve banks are located. A Federal Reserve bank does not engage in general banking business; for the most part it serves as a bank for the member banks within its own district.

Summary. Men exchange goods because of specialization in industry, differences in the products of various quarters of the earth, and dissimilarities in their tastes and needs. Exchanges were made at first by barter, but as transfers became more frequent, systems of weights, measures, and money developed. Money plays an important part in business by serving as a medium of exchange, as a measure of value, and as a legal tender for debts. Although many commodities have been used as money at different times, they have all gradually been displaced in civilized countries by gold and silver, whose qualities better fit them for that service. In order to prevent fraud, modern governments determine the standard weights and measures and exercise complete control over coinage. By far the greater part of the world's business is carried on today without the direct use of money, by means of various kinds of credit devices. Of these devices banks are the most important. To safeguard the public, banks are placed under strict governmental regulations and supervision. To assist business and agricultural interests Congress established the Federal Reserve banking system and the Federal land-bank system, both of which have given valuable services to the entire country.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is credit? (Look it up in the dictionary.) Is there any connection between its literal meaning and its use in business? Explain.
2. What are the chief kinds of credit? Which plays the largest part in business?
3. What is meant by legal tender? Are pennies legal tender? Are nickels? up to any amount? Are checks?
4. What does it mean to redeem money? Is all paper money redeemable in gold? Read what is printed on a silver certificate, a gold certificate, a greenback, a Federal Reserve note. Is there any difference in their redeemability? Is there any difference in their value? Explain.

5. What is the chief service of the banks in your community?
6. Why should a bank be regulated more strictly than a shoe store?
7. Get a bank statement from one of the banks in your community. What is meant by resources? liabilities? capital? loans and discounts? deposits? reserve? surplus?
8. What would you need to do in order to make a "deposit" in a bank? Of what advantages would such a deposit be to you? to the community? What would you need to do in order to borrow from a bank?
9. What is the difference between a check and a draft?
10. What different kinds of banks are there in your community? What is the chief difference between a national and a state bank? How does each differ from a private bank?
11. If a group of people in your neighborhood wanted to organize a bank, just what would they need to do? (Find out from your father or from someone employed in a bank.)
12. In what ways do persons who deposit money in banks help the community?
13. What is meant by a run on a bank? What causes it? How is it dangerous to the welfare of the community?
14. What is meant by high-grade securities? by commercial paper? (Ask someone who works in a bank.)
15. What is meant by this statement: "Banks are factories of credit"?

QUESTION FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that the restriction on the amount of money which may be deposited in postal savings banks should be abolished.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

My First Trade
How I depend on Other Parts of the World
The Clearing-House
The Fur-Trade in Colonial Days
The Money of Primitive Peoples
Continental Currency during the Revolutionary War
The Gold-Seekers in Alaska
My Bank Account

Money in Civil-War Days
 Why I should like to be a Banker
 Wildcat Banking in Jackson's Time
 The Postal Savings Bank in our Community

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CHAPTER XV

COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION

The railway, the steamship, the telegraph, the telephone, and the cable have made possible interstate and international trade, minute divisions of labor, world markets, giant business corporations, great national states, the daily newspaper, and the conception of a League of Nations.

FRANK T. CARLTON

SECTION I. HOW COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION DEVELOPED

Communication among primitive tribes. Before going on the warpath primitive tribes often sent one another, as a sign of hostility, a bundle of arrows tied with a rattlesnake skin; at other times they showed their warlike intentions by hurling a spear dipped in blood into the territory of their enemies. When they were at peace they seldom exchanged messages and goods.

To this last statement there are exceptions. Stanley found that the strange tribes he visited in central Africa had frequently received tidings of his coming long before his arrival by signals passed by the beating of large drums. The early explorers who traversed the interior of North America discovered, likewise, that Indians communicated with one another by means of smoke signals. But information or news circulated apparently only when some extraordinary event occurred.

Transportation among primitive tribes. Transportation of goods between different primitive peoples was also slight. If they lived in the same vicinity their products were so similar that there was little reason for exchange, while if they lived remote from one another they were often ignorant

of each other's existence. Their wants, moreover, were few and simple. What we know as commerce hardly went on among them. There were markets in various parts of Africa, it is true, and articles like gold dust, ostrich plumes, and ivory tusks had been carried to the coast for centuries, but this trade was small in comparison with the trade of modern times.

Development of land transportation. In early days transportation methods were very simple. At first burdens were borne on the shoulders of men and women. Then dogs, cattle, horses, and camels were tamed and trained to carry loads or to drag them on branches of trees, poles, or rude sleds. Of course the load which a man or an animal could carry was small and the cost high. In our own Far West, when transportation was largely by means of pack mules, the cost was usually a dollar a pound every hundred miles. Under these conditions only articles which had great value in comparison with their size could be carried any distance. Early overland trade therefore was always limited to articles like precious stones, spices, fine fabrics, gold, silver, furs, and tobacco.

CHINESE PORTER

In China human life is cheap and, in many sections, coolies, or workmen, are used to carry heavy burdens which in Europe or America would be transported by railroad or steamboat. This porter is carrying 317 pounds of brick tea hundreds of miles across the mountains.

When the wheel was invented, carts and wagons began to take the place of pack animals, the size of loads increased, and the cost of transportation dropped. Since roads were

useful for war as well as for trade, ancient rulers often constructed highways extending for hundreds of miles through their empires; the Roman emperors, for example, built splendid stone roads, some of which are in use today.

Development of water transportation. Transportation by land is usually more difficult and expensive than transportation by water. From the earliest times, therefore, man has made use of rivers, lakes, and seas—nature's highways—to carry himself and his burdens from place to place. A rude raft of logs pushed along by poles in shallow water and by flat pieces of wood in deep water was probably man's first boat. In time hollowed logs and, in America, birch-bark canoes were invented. Except as he was carried along by the current, man depended at first on his own muscle for power. Then, one day, the idea of harnessing the wind to his raft, even as he yoked an ox to a cart, came into his mind. The result was the sailboat.

Raft, rowboat, and sailing craft were all inventions of primitive man. The ancient Phoenicians, Greeks, and Romans developed a large vessel called the galley ship,—a combination rowboat and sailing vessel,—which was used for both commerce and war. Several centuries later the long, narrow, shallow craft of the old Norse vikings proved well fitted for the daring raids of its masters up the rivers of France and England; it also served admirably for their bold voyages to Greenland and America.

The Crusades gave a great stimulus to water transportation. Many crusaders preferred to go to the Holy Land by sea rather than by land. To take them and their horses and supplies to the East and to bring back the large cargoes of goods desired in the West required the building of larger ships than had previously been used, while the necessity of regular voyages to and from Palestine, together with wider experience with the sea, taught sailors the art of tacking, or sailing against the wind. These two improvements and the invention of the compass and the astrolabe (an instrument

for measuring latitude) made possible the discoveries of such explorers as Columbus, Magellan, and Drake. About the same time Gutenberg invented the printing-press (1450) and furnished a means of spreading knowledge superior to any other method ever devised.

The Industrial Revolution and transportation. During the next three hundred years there were few improvements in

communication and in transportation. Measured by conditions when Julius Cæsar was alive, there was even an actual decline so far as land facilities were concerned. But with the coming of the factory and with the enormous increase in the output of manufactured goods, men endeavored as never before to better these agencies.

TOM THUMB

The *Tom Thumb*, built by Peter Cooper, was one of the earliest locomotives manufactured in America. It made the trial trip over the Baltimore and Ohio, the first successful railroad in the country.

A Scotchman named Macadam invented a new method of road-building which has been

known by his name ever since. Canals were dug in such numbers in England that the country became a network of artificial waterways. Railroads of wood and iron, on which cars were drawn by mules, had long been used in mines; attempts were now made to use them in overland transportation. Horse cars were tried; treadmills run by animals were introduced; even the use of sails was attempted. Finally, in 1814, George Stephenson invented the steam locomotive, and before many years railroads were built in all civilized countries. At the present time one can ride from New York to San Francisco in about ninety hours without needing to

lose a meal or a wink of sleep, and a single freight train, it is said, can carry more corn than could be transported on the backs of one million men.

While these improvements in land transportation were being made, attempts to use steam in water transportation

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GIANT LOCOMOTIVE

This huge engine, with its twenty-four drive wheels and a weight of more than four hundred tons, is said to be the most powerful steam locomotive in the world. It is used for pushing heavy trains up long grades. Contrast with the *Tom Thumb*.

resulted in 1807 in the successful trip of Fulton's steamboat, the *Clermont*, from New York to Albany. Although many people declared a steamboat could never carry enough coal to cross the Atlantic by its own power, the *Great Western* performed the feat without difficulty in 1838 and transported a large cargo into the bargain.

The Industrial Revolution and communication. During these years improvements in communication were also made. Modern commerce, of course, would be impossible if information about crops, live stock, prices, and orders could not be sent quickly. Consequently, hand in hand with the development of roads, canals, railroads, and steamboats came

A MOUNTAIN OF COAL IN ALASKA

These two veins of coal, each about forty feet thick, are of no practical value at present, owing to the lack of railroads and steamboats. Can you give other instances in which poor transportation has prevented the use of valuable commodities?

the invention of the telegraph, the telephone, the wireless, and a series of remarkable improvements in the postal service.

When Samuel F. B. Morse first tried to secure money from Congress to build a telegraph line some congressmen laughed at his idea, while others maintained that, even if the invention would do what he claimed, it would be of little practical use. Fortunately there were members who saw its true value, and in 1844 they persuaded Congress to vote \$30,000 to construct a line from Baltimore to Washington. This experiment proved the practical value of the telegraph, and in less than twenty years lines were built from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico and from the Atlantic to the

Pacific. In 1866 the submarine telegraph was laid across the Atlantic by Cyrus W. Field, and at the beginning of the twentieth century the Pacific too was linked by its strands of steel and copper. Today it is said that with right conditions a message can be sent around the world by means of the telegraph and the cable in less than twenty minutes.

MULTIPLE PRESS

This press prints, folds, cuts, and delivers ready for the newsboy from seventy to eighty thousand sixteen-page newspapers in an hour.

What the postal service, the telegraph, and the cables are to the nation and the world, the telephone is to the local community. Looked upon as a toy when it was invented by Alexander Graham Bell (1876), its value as a timesaver was soon recognized, and it is now regarded more as a necessity than as a luxury. With the building of long-distance lines its importance for business purposes as well as for friendly communication has grown rapidly. Finally, the invention of the wireless telegraph and the wireless telephone by Marconi and others apparently completed man's conquest of space

so far as messages are concerned. The development of the automobile and the aëroplane during the same time may in a sense be regarded as crowning his efforts in transportation.

Development of postal service. Every ten-cent postage stamp is a monument to the man who in colonial days did so much to establish a service which today reaches more Americans than does any other branch of the government. But the postal arrangements of Franklin's time and for many years afterward form a striking contrast to the efficient service of today. When Washington became president there were only seventy-five post offices in the United States. To send a letter from New York to Boston required six days, and the postriders made the trip but three times a week. Letters and parcels were so frequently opened and examined that people often corresponded with one another in code or cipher. So often were money and packages stolen that many persons preferred to intrust them to travelers rather than to send them by mail.

There were then no envelopes, no postage stamps, no letter boxes in the streets, no hourly collections of the mail. The letter written, the paper was carefully folded, sealed with wax or a wafer, addressed, and carried to the post office, where postage was prepaid at rates which would now seem extortionate. To send a letter which was a single sheet of paper, large or small, from Boston to New York or Philadelphia, cost eighteen and a half cents, and to Washington twenty-five cents. To carry a letter from Philadelphia, then the capital of the United States, to Boston, and bring back an answer by return mail, would have consumed from twelve to eighteen days, according to the season of the year and the weather.¹

As late as 1844 it cost 6 cents to send a letter of a single sheet 30 miles, while single-sheet letters going over 400 miles cost 25 cents. This charge was increased by an equal

¹ J. B. McMaster, "A Century of Social Betterment," *Atlantic Monthly* (January, 1897), Vol. LXXIX, p. 21.

amount for each additional sheet. Although postal rates were greatly reduced in 1845, as late as 1858 it cost 10 cents a half ounce to send a letter from St. Louis to San Francisco.

About this time a pony express was established from the Missouri River to the Pacific. Eighty of the best riders on the frontier were employed and five hundred fast horses were purchased. Each rider carried nothing but a knife and a revolver and the two waterproof mail bags whose contents never exceeded twenty pounds. Letters had to be written on tissue paper, for everything had to be kept as light as possible. Postage at first was \$5 for letters weighing less than one-half ounce and \$10 for those weighing from one-half to one ounce. Ten days was the schedule time of the pony express; previously the trip had never been made in less than eighteen days. Among the famous riders was William F. Cody ("Buffalo Bill"); on one occasion, when barely sixteen years old, he carried the mails over three hundred miles in about twenty-one hours, with no stops except to change horses and swallow one hasty meal. The pony express never failed to keep up to its schedule except when its riders were killed by the Indians; usually it came in ahead of time.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Are means of transportation of greater or lesser importance today than they were two hundred years ago? Explain. Is the same thing true of means of communication? If so, why?
2. Was the taming of the horse or the harnessing of electricity the greater achievement? Why?
3. Was the wheel or the automobile the greater invention? the printing-press or the wireless telegraph? the alphabet or the printing-press? Why?
4. What were the Crusades? Why did many crusaders prefer to travel by water rather than by land? How did the Crusades lead to improvements in transportation? Did the discovery of America have a similar result? Explain.

5. Why is transportation usually more expensive by land than by water?

6. List in chronological order the chief improvements in communication and transportation which have been made since 1800.

7. How did the factory make improvements in communication and transportation necessary?

8. Look up the life and work of one of the following: John Gutenberg; George Stephenson; Robert Fulton; Samuel F. B. Morse; Cyrus W. Field; Alexander Graham Bell; Guglielmo Marconi; Orville Wright; Richard M. Hoe. In your opinion which one of these men contributed most to human welfare? Give reasons for your answer.

SECTION II. MODERN METHODS OF COMMUNICATION

Postal service. In striking contrast to the difficulties and expenses of the mail service in the days of Washington and Lincoln are the speed, low cost, and magnitude of the postal service of today. The 75 offices of 1790 have been succeeded by the 50,000 offices of the present time. There have also been established more than 40,000 rural postal routes which provide excellent mail service for millions of farmers. One billion postal cards and more than twice as many stamped envelopes and wrappers are sold every year. Almost 20,000,000,000 pieces of mail are delivered annually. For many years the International Postal Union has made possible the sending of mail from one country to another at a very low cost.

In addition to the transportation of letters, circulars, and papers, the post office since 1913 has carried merchandise and other packages at low rates by parcel post. In 1917 the aëroplane was introduced to furnish more rapid delivery between certain cities; in 1921 mail was carried from San Francisco to New York City in thirty-three hours. By the sale of money orders the post office provides a safe means of sending money through the mails. For an additional fee it furnishes registration and special-delivery services for

those who wish safer and more rapid transportation. Since 1911 the post offices in many cities have also received money for deposit, and at present more than half a million men, women, and children make use of them as savings banks.

General management of the post office is in the hands of a member of the president's cabinet known as the Postmaster-General. He is aided by four assistant postmasters-general. They have general charge of establishing post offices, transporting the mails, and securing equipment and supplies. With few exceptions the postmasters and other postal employees are appointed according to civil-service regulations.

Telegraph, cable, and telephone. Within the United States today there is a perfect network of telegraph and telephone lines, while cables unite us with every civilized country in the world. The Western

"MERRY CHRISTMAS!"

The postman is, perhaps, the most familiar of Uncle Sam's employees. You can help lighten his load by doing your Christmas mailing early.

Union Telegraph Company alone has at the present time over 1,300,000 miles of wire in operation—more than enough to encircle the earth fifty times. Over its lines more than 75,000,000 messages are carried annually. The Bell Telephone Company has today over 24,000,000 miles of wire in operation; it handles more than 30,000,000 calls every day,—a greater number of messages than are sent by mail and over the telegraph lines and cables combined. The new

loud-speaking transmitter and telephone amplifier, which made it possible for audiences from New York to San Francisco to hear President Harding's armistice address at Arlington, Virginia, offers fascinating possibilities for the development of oral communication in the future.

Though wireless telegraphy and telephony are still in their infancy, both have already given proof of their usefulness.

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UNITED STATES AIR MAIL SERVICE

To save every possible minute the airplane and the automobile are both used in handling the air mail. The mail arrives at the landing-field and is immediately rushed in this truck to the post office in the down-town district.

Hardly a ship now sails which is not equipped with wireless apparatus. During his trips to and from Europe, President Wilson was able by its assistance to keep in constant touch with officials at Washington and to transact business which would have been impossible otherwise. Scarcely a week goes by in which the S. O. S. signal of the wireless does not lead to the saving of lives and property. Wireless telephony, which developed rapidly during the World War, is already proving a useful ally of the mails, the telegraph, and the telephone.

Distribution of news. One of the most important results of these inventions has been the rapid distribution of news. With their help the Associated Press and other news-gathering agencies can describe every day events which took place during the preceding twenty-four hours in all parts of the globe. In this way one's world is made larger and one's life more interesting. In addition, the value to

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BUSIEST SPOT IN A NEWSPAPER OFFICE

This is the "copy" desk in the office of a great metropolitan daily. Here news from the wires and from the reporters is read, corrected, and made ready for the printer.

business of market news, financial conditions, and weather reports is inestimable. Not the least of the services of the newspapers is the information they give of the speeches and votes of members of city councils, state legislatures, and Congress. Through their columns citizens may know whether their representatives truly represent them. Unfortunately, however, certain newspapers sometimes ignore their obligation to publish nothing but the truth, using their columns to arouse prejudices and to mislead instead of to inform the community. Few agencies are more influential for good or for evil than the press of the country.

In distributing useful information the national government also renders important service. The Weather Bureau, a division of the Department of Agriculture, gathers and spreads throughout the country news about weather conditions which enables fruit-growers and gardeners to protect fruits and vegetables against frost and sudden cold, while its warnings of approaching storms guide sailors in their voyages and save both life and property. Every morning the Department of Agriculture, which has its own telegraph office in Washington, distributes reliable and impartial information about the production and marketing of fruits and vegetables, which saves growers, shippers, dealers, and consumers millions of dollars annually; in 1921 wireless service was introduced, which makes it possible for farmers in a number of states to receive daily reports of market conditions in various sections of the country. The department's meat-news service, crop estimates, and bulletins on seeds, weeds, and insects also render an important service for stock-raisers and farmers. Once every ten years the Census Bureau, a division of the Department of Commerce, takes a census of the population and industries of the United States, which is of great value to scholars, investigators, and legislators. Other departments of the government also spread useful information about education, labor, health, commerce, and inventions.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare the cost of taking a letter from St. Louis to San Francisco by air mail with the cost by pony express. What does it now cost to send a letter from St. Louis to Peking, China?
2. Look up in the encyclopedia the history of the postage stamp. Why do people sometimes collect stamps?
3. How many people are employed in the post office in your community? How do they secure their positions (including the postmaster)? Find out at the office the value of local stamp sales for last year; why is this important?

4. How many subscribers does the telephone company in your community have today? How many did it have ten years ago? Compare with the population at both times. What conclusions should you draw from your comparison?

5. What good do the newspapers do your community? What harm? Give examples.

6. How would the complete destruction of the telegraph and telephone lines in this country affect business?

7. Prepare a report on one of the following topics: The First Railroad; The First Telegraph; The Laying of the Atlantic Cable; The Invention of the Wireless Telegraph; Communicating by Heliograph; The First Aëroplanes; Wireless Telephony (see reading-list).

SECTION III. ROADS, STREETS, AND STREET CARS

Importance of good roads. Ever since primitive man tamed the ox and invented the wheel the most important factor in land transportation has been the road or the street. It alone always plays a part in taking goods or people from one place to another. Its condition, therefore, is always an important item in the time and cost of transportation.

All intelligent farmers know that their horses can pull only half as large a load on a muddy road as they can on a stone pike and that it takes twice as long and costs twice as much, therefore, to haul corn to town on a muddy road as if the road were a pike. On the average country road, in fact, it costs 23 cents to carry a ton a mile, while on an improved pike the expense is but 13 cents. For this reason the value of farm lands where there are good roads is much higher than where the roads are poor. Comparisons by the Department of Agriculture of farm lands both in Ohio and in North Carolina show that land near improved roads is worth almost 50 per cent more than similar land near unimproved roads.

Road-building movements. These facts and the increasing use of the automobile have caused numerous road-building

campaigns in various parts of the country in recent years. In some communities farmers have formed road-building clubs; in others public-spirited citizens have raised large sums of money for roads; in others the local governments have levied heavy taxes and have issued bonds to secure funds for pikes. In many instances the state governments have offered financial aid to counties that will build improved roads, and through state-highway commissions have assisted in the work of construction.

In 1918 the national government passed a law providing \$275,000,000 for the construction of rural and state roads; by this act it will pay one half of the total cost of such roads. In 1920 the citizens of seven states voted to issue almost \$300,000,000 in bonds to build good roads within their boundaries. These steps and the building of splendid interstate pikes like the Lincoln and Dixie highways have emphasized the fact that good roads concern everyone.

Construction of roads and streets. Road and street building is too complex for full treatment here. Weather conditions, the lay of the land, and the chief purposes of the road should, of course, determine the material used and the plan of construction followed. In regions where there are cold winters and hot summers roads must be built in a manner different from that in communities where such variations do not occur; those constructed in hilly or mountainous districts need safeguards against washouts, unnecessary in level districts; business streets used by heavy vans and trucks require a harder surface than is needed in avenues lined by residences and used chiefly by automobiles.

Paving should be selected with a view to durability, smoothness, cost, and the reduction of dust and noise. Cobblestone will stand the hardest kind of pounding, but it is rough, noisy, and hard to clean; a brick pavement is fairly smooth, easily repaired and cleaned, and, considering its durability, is inexpensive, but it too is noisy; a macadamized street is inexpensive and, if covered from time to time

A BAD ROAD

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A GOOD ROAD

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Hauling is slow and expensive work on a road like that shown in the upper picture, but on a concrete pike it is easy and economical with the help of a motor truck to pick up a two-thousand pound load at the farmer's gate and transport it rapidly to milk depot or railroad station.

with oil or tar, is free from dust, but it lacks durability and is difficult to repair in a satisfactory manner; asphalt is smooth, almost noiseless, and is attractive in appearance, but it too is not durable, is hard to keep in repair, and cannot be used on steep grades; a street paved with wood blocks soaked in a creosote or tar preparation is smooth, makes little noise, and is fairly inexpensive and durable. Because of their inexpensiveness and lasting qualities some authorities consider bitulithic and concrete pavements superior to any of those mentioned. Thus, each type of paving has its advantages and disadvantages, and a wise choice can be made only by considering the purposes to which the street is to be put.

Thirty to forty feet is usually wide enough for residential streets and country roads, but important business thoroughfares should furnish space for double street-car tracks and, in addition, provide room on each side of the tracks for at least two lines of vehicles to pass one another, so that traffic will not be delayed. Boulevards containing parkways should be at least one hundred feet in width; the famous Midway Plaisance in Chicago measures six hundred and sixty feet.

Local passenger transportation. In the small town local transportation presents no great difficulty; if necessary, people can go on foot from one part of the community to another in little time and with little trouble. But when a town becomes a city and a city a metropolis, transportation becomes a serious problem: either the inhabitants must live crowded within a small area or a cheap and rapid means of traveling to and from their work must be developed. With the growth of large cities both results have occurred—congested districts called slums have appeared and new methods of transportation have come into existence.

The first of these new methods was the street car. The earliest cars were drawn by horses. Cars drawn by underground cables were next invented; they proved especially

**NATIONAL PARKS AND IMPORTANT HIGHWAYS IN WESTERN
UNITED STATES**

On this map are shown the chief highways and national parks in the western half of the United States. It is now possible to take a five-thousand-mile trip by motor car around what is sometimes called the Park-to-Park Highway and, by a few detours, to visit all of the national parks and monuments in the West. Many of the more progressive cities have established free camping grounds provided with running water, brick ovens, and shower baths for the convenience of automobile tourists.

useful in cities like Pittsburgh and San Francisco, where steep hills are common. Then came the electric trolley car. After its introduction in 1884 it soon displaced all but a few of the horse and cable cars, and today it furnishes transportation for the great majority of city people.

Modern cities are so large and the traffic within them is so great that it has been found necessary to supplement the surface tracks with underground and elevated lines. London and Paris have excellent subway lines; New York, Philadelphia, and Boston have both underground and elevated roads; Chicago has underground tracks for carrying freight, but depends on surface and elevated cars and on the suburban service of the steam railways for passenger traffic.

The street railway lines—surface, subway, and elevated—by their cheap and speedy service make possible the great city of today. Through them and the automobile many people are able to dwell miles from the dust and noise of manufacturing and business sections and to enjoy something of the health and beauty of the out-of-doors.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of the different ways messages can be sent in this country; then a list of the various ways goods can be carried. Which is the longer list? Which methods occur in both lists?

2. What kinds of streets has your community? Are they paved with a view to the purposes for which they are used? Give examples. What kind of paving seems to give best satisfaction?

3. How wide are your business streets? residence streets? Are they wide enough? Should all cities have streets equally wide? Explain.

4. What is being done to improve the roads in your county? in your state?

5. Compare the Roman roads with the roads of today (see Johnston, *The Private Life of the Romans*, pp. 282–285).

6. Find out all you can about one of the following roads: Roosevelt National Highway; Lincoln Highway; Yellowstone

Trail; Dixie Overland Highway; Columbia Highway. What other noted roads do you know about? What ones have you traveled?

7. What kind of local passenger transportation does your city have? How do fares and services compare with other cities you have visited? Can you account for the difference?

SECTION IV. HOW AGENCIES OF COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION ARE CONTROLLED

Streets and roads. So long as loads were carried on the backs of men or animals all that was needed for a passageway was a narrow path or trail. The invention of the cart and wagon, however, made it necessary for the community to have roads and pikes; for, although a man can become the owner of a mule without much difficulty and can also usually provide himself with a wagon, he faces a very different problem when it comes to building a pike. Here the united effort of the community is needed; even if it were not so, it would be absurd for each man to build and own his own road.

In the United States the local communities have always been the chief builders of streets and roads. In the old days, it is true, pikes were occasionally constructed by private companies, and tolls were charged for their use; but as a rule the expense of building and repairing roads has been borne by the locality, and their use has been free to all.

National action. When settlements began to grow up west of the Allegheny mountains a new problem arose. Frontiersmen could get along with trails or could make such roads as they needed in their own immediate localities, but it was impossible for them to pay for highways to the Eastern settlements, three hundred miles away. It would have been unfair anyway to let them bear the cost alone, since such roads would benefit towns in the East as well as themselves.

In a few instances private companies attempted to solve the problem, as in the cutting of the Wilderness Trail to

Boonesborough; but the task was usually too great, and as years passed appeals for aid were made in increasing numbers to the national government. Eastern communities also began to urge the government to improve their harbors and rivers. In response to these calls Congress, from 1806 on, voted money from time to time for dredging harbors, deepening rivers, and constructing highways. But vetoes of such measures by Madison and Monroe put a temporary stop to appropriations, and state governments began to take up the work.

State action. New York spent millions of dollars on the Erie Canal. Pennsylvania and Ohio voted large sums for pikes and canals. When the railroads appeared money and lands were given, especially in the West, for their construction. A wild speculation now took place which ended in the panic of 1837, and during the "hard times" which followed state governments lost their enthusiasm for constructing transportation facilities, and although they occasionally aided such projects by liberal grants of land and money they left the building and control chiefly to private companies.

National appropriations and enterprises. Meantime the national government gave thousands of acres of public land and millions of dollars to aid in the construction of telegraph lines and railroads. In the building of the Union Pacific Railway, for example, Congress gave the company a right of way four hundred feet wide from Council Bluffs, Iowa, to the coast, twenty sections of land for each mile of track built, and large sums of money in United States bonds. In all, the Union Pacific is estimated to have cost the government \$830,000,000, though the enterprise from the beginning was private property. Not until 1915, when Congress voted money for a railway in Alaska, was a railroad of any consequence owned by the United States.

The Panama Canal, on the other hand, was from the first a government enterprise, built, operated, and controlled by government officials. While also a government undertaking,

the postal service has constantly used private agencies in its work: in early days the mail was carried over pikes and in stagecoaches owned by private individuals; in the Far West it was taken by pony-express riders employed by a private company; today it is carried over privately owned railroads in accordance with contracts which the government has entered into with the railroad companies.

POST-OFFICE BUILDING

Typical of the better class of federal buildings is the Milwaukee Post Office (the structure with the tower). In addition to furnishing accommodations for the mail service, it contains rooms for revenue collectors and other government employees.

Means of communication and transportation are frequently natural monopolies. With few exceptions, then, streets and roads have always been constructed and owned by the community. Telephone, telegraph, and street-car lines, on the other hand, have usually been the property of private companies. While natural waterways have been free to all who cared to use them, canals have frequently been under private ownership and control. Though built with the help of the government, the railroads, with rare exceptions, have been the property of private citizens. Thus, for the

most part, the means of communication and transportation on which all must depend are owned today by private individuals.

Now it is obvious that the business of transporting messages, people, and goods differs fundamentally from that of the butcher or grocer. If one finds the butcher's meat poor, his charges high, or his manners rude, he can buy from another butcher; that is, competition tends to keep the quality of goods high, prices reasonable, and service good. But one usually cannot patronize another telephone company or street-car line if the charges are too high or the service is wretched, because, as a rule, there is only one such company in the community.

Where rival telephone or street-car companies exist, they are generally found to be annoying and expensive, because they give a kind of service which cannot be duplicated advantageously. If there are two telephone companies in the same town a grocer must have both telephones to accommodate his customers, some of whom will have one telephone and some the other; but two telephones are expensive. Moreover, where there are two companies, friends frequently find it hard to telephone to one another, since one may be a patron of one company and the other of the other company. Accordingly most cities prefer to have only one telephone system, but unless the community owns or controls the system the company can make practically what charges and give what services it pleases, for it will have a monopoly of the business; that is, it will be the only agency in the community furnishing that particular service.

Franchises. For these reasons it has long been recognized that society must own or control enterprises which are natural monopolies. Among these are telephones, electric-light plants, street cars, and railways. Since in our country these monopolies have usually developed under private ownership, the community has tried to protect its interests by what are called franchises. As used here, a franchise is a privilege

granted by the government to an individual or a company to do certain things under given conditions. Eager to secure telephones, electric lights, and street cars, local governments have frequently granted companies the use of the streets and other privileges without sufficiently guarding the community. In the past, companies have occasionally been granted franchises running for ninety-nine years, sometimes for nine hundred and ninety-nine, and, in addition, have been allowed great freedom in fixing rates and quality of service. Fortunately, such grants were few.

Nowadays franchises are usually limited to from fifteen to twenty-five years. They state the rates which may be charged, the services which must be given, and frequently provide for a division of the profits between the company and the city. In addition, they occasionally provide that the city may take over the property at a certain time if it so desires.

Watered stock. In the past, public-service corporations have often "watered" their securities; that is, they have issued shares of stock and bonds beyond the real value of their property. A few years ago the cost of replacing the property of the Chicago railway companies was estimated at about \$45,000,000, while the market value of the securities issued on this property was at the time over \$120,000,000. Brand Whitlock, formerly mayor of Toledo, declared that the actual investment of the street railway company in Toledo was about \$5,000,000, while it was capitalized at almost \$30,000,000.¹

In order to pay interest on such securities, companies have frequently levied high charges and given poor service. When the franchises which have made their high profits possible have been in danger they have at times bribed city officials, broken the laws, misled public opinion by controlling the newspapers through their advertising, and expended large sums of money to elect men to city councils, and even to state

¹F. C. Howe, *Modern City and its Problems*, p. 152.

legislatures, who would vote for measures they wanted. In these ways they have menaced good government and have caused many people to become advocates of government ownership. At the present time nearly all the states have public-utility commissions which control the granting of franchises, the issuing of stocks and bonds, the rates which may be charged, and the character of equipment and service.

Government ownership. Believers in government ownership point to its success in European cities and maintain that similar results have taken place where it has been tried in the United States. This is true, they say, particularly of waterworks and electric-light plants, which in many American communities are the property of the municipality; here rates are lower, services are better, and politics are purer than under private ownership. On the other hand, opponents of government ownership insist that it would destroy progress, prove wasteful, cause political corruption, and that it has failed in most communities in which it has been tried; proper government regulation, they say, will cure existing evils.

Control of interstate communication and transportation. The railroads, telegraphs, and other means of communication and transportation throughout the nation also present difficult problems of control, for they too are monopolistic in character and have usually developed under private ownership.

The first railroads in the United States were short lines. Their rates frequently varied, and their tracks were of different width. In 1840 a carload of freight from Albany to Buffalo had to go over eleven different lines, and unless the car wheels were changed to fit the different tracks the goods had to be moved from one car to another many times during the trip. Such transportation was both slow and expensive. Similar conditions existed among early telegraph and long-distance telephone lines.

The advantages of combination led Cornelius Vanderbilt, about 1860, to unite different railroads between New York

and Lake Erie into one company—the New York Central. The success of this combination was followed by the consolidation of other railways and other industries. In the Northwest James J. Hill built up a great railway system containing thousands of miles, while E. H. Harriman extended the Union Pacific from a road of eighteen hundred miles to a system of twenty-three thousand miles and more. During the same time telephone companies and telegraph lines were also consolidated into a few companies.

These combinations greatly reduced the cost of operation, but they proved to be a great danger to the people. Railroads,

for example, collected what rates they pleased and gave what services they pleased. At times they ruined shippers and even entire communities by granting lower rates or better service to certain competitors. These dangers led to the passing of state laws drastically regulating the railroads. But these laws could not regulate traffic between the states, since that power, according to the Constitution, belonged to the national government. This situation caused Congress in 1887 to establish the Interstate Commerce Commission. By this act it embarked on an important experiment in trade regulation, for although it had previously authorized coast

CONTAINER CAR

This car is composed of nine fireproof and burglar-proof steel containers. The shipper puts the valuable freight inside the container, which is then hauled to the freight station by motor truck. See also the picture on page 408.

surveys and the building of lighthouses, it had never extensively used its power "to regulate commerce among the several states."

Interstate Commerce Commission. As organized today, the Interstate Commerce Commission has eleven members. Its

duty is to investigate all questions of interstate commerce which affect railroads, canals, steamship lines, express companies, and telephone and telegraph companies. No rate can be charged without its approval, issues of bonds are subject to its regulations, and the records of the companies must be open to its examination at all times. It has been of great service to shippers, stockholders, and the gen-

LIFTING THE CONTAINER

At the freight station, the container is placed upon the car by means of this immense crane. There is no safer way to ship valuable goods today than in a steel container car.

eral public, but evils still exist, and some people feel that no form of regulation, however complete, will solve the problem; according to them the final outcome will be government ownership and operation.

Transportation act. During the World War the government took over the control and management of the railroads. In returning them to their owners in 1920, Congress passed a law directing the Interstate Commerce Commission to fix rates which will bring the roads a net profit of at least 5½ per cent on their real value for two years; if the profits

exceed 6 per cent they are to be divided equally between the government and the road earning the profit. The government's share of such excess profits is to be used to assist the weaker roads. The act also provides for a Railway Labor Board to deal with labor difficulties which may arise. This board is composed of nine members appointed by the president with the approval of the Senate; three members are to represent the workers, three the railway officials, and three the public. When invited to do so, the board may investigate and fix the compensation of railway employees, but no penalty is provided for violation of its decisions. The board has enormous influence, especially when backed up by the public. This was shown in 1921, when trouble between managers and employees threatened to stop every train in the country. The decision of the board on this occasion, although not compulsory, led to a peaceful settlement of the controversy.

Summary. By the development of land and water transportation and the mastery of various methods of communication, man has compelled all quarters of the globe to contribute to his physical and mental needs. The post office, the telegraph, cable, and telephone lines, newspapers and periodicals, are the chief modern methods for distributing information. Roads, streets, trolley cars, and automobiles in local communities and railroads and steamship lines in larger areas are the chief agencies in modern transportation. Of the various social problems which have arisen in connection with man's conquest of space, the most difficult are the furnishing of cheap and rapid transportation in cities and the question of control. The first of these problems bids fair to be solved by the development of surface, subway, and elevated lines and by the wider use of the automobile. Concerning the second, experts differ on the merits of private ownership under public regulation and of government ownership with or without government management. Wider experience will be necessary before either can be considered an unqualified success.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Which benefited more from the Erie Canal—the East or the West? from the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad? Why?
2. One meaning of the word “franchise” is “the right to vote.” Do you see any connection between its use in the fourth section of this chapter and the use just mentioned? Explain.
3. Why did Presidents Madison and Monroe veto appropriations for internal improvements? (Consult an American history.)
4. Prepare a talk on one of these topics: Building the Erie Canal; Transportation and the Growth of Large Cities; Railroads and the Development of the West; The Panama Canal.
5. In Chicago part of the income of the street-railway companies must be paid to the city. This makes it necessary to charge a higher fare than would otherwise be necessary. Is the plan a good one? Give reasons for your opinion.
6. What is a natural monopoly? Are there any in your community? If so, who owns and controls them?
7. What is the “merchant marine”? (Consult the encyclopedia.) What are the chief arguments for and against subsidizing the merchant marine? (Look up “subsidize” in the dictionary.)
8. What is meant by “watered” stock? How did the term originate? In what ways is the watering of stock injurious to the public?
9. Give three arguments for government ownership of street railway lines; three against it. Which do you favor?
10. Does the country or the city receive greater benefit from the railways? Which is more dependent upon them?
11. Does the railroad charge more for hauling a carload of coal than for hauling a carload of machinery? Should there be any difference? If so, why?
12. Explain the quotation at the head of this chapter.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that the national government should publish a daily newspaper containing information about governmental activities.

Resolved, that all railroads engaged in interstate traffic should be owned and operated by the federal government.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

Animals which Migrate
 The Aërial Mail Service
 Interesting Stamps in my Collection
 Road (or Street) Construction in our Community
 The Use of Motor Trucks in Long-Distance Transportation
 Secrets of the Weather Bureau
 Diary of a Pony-Express Rider
 The Railway Mail Service
 Travel in Colonial Days
 Early Railway Construction in our State
 Telephone Service in our Town
 To California by Stagecoach
 The most Interesting Journey I ever made
 Curious Modes of Travel in the Orient
 My First Trip in the Subway (or on the Elevated)
 The Control of the Railroads in Canada
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CHAPTER XVI

LABOR AND CAPITAL

Then let us pray that come it may,
As come it will for a' that,

.

That man to man, the world o'er,
Shall brothers be for a' that.

ROBERT BURNS

SECTION I. THE OWNERSHIP OF GOODS

The problem. In the days of the spinning-wheel and the hand loom the modern problem of capital and labor did not exist. At that time workmen as a rule owned their own tools, worked in their own shops, set their own hours, sold the products of their own labor, and kept the profits or bore the losses of the business. But today goods are made in factories by people who work for wages and who do not own the materials they use, the buildings in which they work, the machines they operate, or the goods they turn out. For the most part all these things belong to others. Out of this separation between the worker and the things he works with have come the most difficult problems of modern industry—the problems of working-conditions, of control of the industry, and of the division of the profits of production between the man who works or manages and the man who furnishes the tools and materials to work with.

Differences in wealth. Although there have always been great variations between the wealth of different persons, the gulf which separates them was never so wide as it is today. On the one hand, there are millions who do not have enough to eat from day to day; on the other hand, there are some

men whose yearly incomes are greater than the wealth of kings. According to a recent estimate nine tenths of the families in the United States earn less than \$1500 a year; at the same time there are 20,000 with incomes of more than \$50,000 annually, and 200 with incomes above \$1,000,000! At one extreme, 65 per cent of the people own one twentieth of the wealth of the nation; at the other, 2 per cent own three fifths of it. When hard-working people know of differences like these, when they see the income of a single capitalist exceed the combined wealth of 150,000 workmen, it is no wonder they often become discontented and conclude that something is wrong with modern industrial methods.

Effect of the Industrial Revolution on the working class. When the factory came into existence it at first brought much suffering to the working class. With the new machinery a few workers could turn out goods which in earlier days had required the labor of hundreds. This fact, together with the employment of women and children, who frequently could run the machines better than the men, threw thousands of men out of work, led to frightfully long hours, and resulted in starvation wages. Little children six and seven years old worked from eight to fourteen hours a day; women, from twelve to sixteen; men, as long as eighteen. Working-conditions were unsanitary and dangerous; the death rate, especially among children, was very high.

Development of American labor organizations. Against these conditions strong protests were raised and a few reforms were made. The workers soon found, however, that they could accomplish nothing when standing alone, and as a result they began to act in groups. While an employer could snap his fingers at the complaints of a single employee or could get along without him altogether, if need be, it was very different when the workmen were united—to discharge one of them then might mean the closing of the plant. A realization of this fact—the strength of union—led to the formation of labor organizations.

At first the workers in each trade, such as printing or carpentry, had their own union and had little to do with other unions. As organizations, however, they found what they had already discovered as individuals; namely, that they could not accomplish much when they stood alone. Accordingly they began to form federations, which about 1834 became nation-wide. But the hard times which followed the panic of 1837 practically destroyed these early labor organizations, and it was not until the end of the Civil War that a national labor movement on a large scale again appeared. The Knights of Labor, composed of workers regardless of trade, color, or sex, then came into existence. For several years this organization grew rapidly; its members at one time numbered over a million; but its opposition to trade unions, quarrels within its own ranks, and unwise acts by its leaders gradually made it unpopular.

American Federation of Labor. Meantime local trade unions had been formed to look after the special interests of the men engaged in particular trades. In 1881 these unions formed a national organization known as the American Federation of Labor. It is now the strongest labor organization in the United States.

The American Federation of Labor, unlike the Knights of Labor, does not have individual workers as members. It is a union of unions, whose combined membership numbers more than four million. Most of its adherents are skilled workers. It furnishes a means for the laboring class to act together whenever they believe their interests are at stake. It has done much to better the working and living conditions of laborers and to widen their educational opportunities.

Combinations of capitalists. The years which saw the development of these labor organizations witnessed also the birth of the giant combinations known as the "trusts." In 1882 the Standard Oil Company was organized as a trust; then within a short time came the Whisky Trust, the Sugar Trust, and the Copper Trust. The same year brought the

formation of associations of employers like the American Manufacturers' Association. They also saw the beginning of serious industrial warfare.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What are the chief problems of capital and labor?
2. Does the invention of labor-saving machinery benefit the workingman? If so, why have workingmen frequently destroyed new labor-saving devices?
3. What are the advantages of labor unions? the disadvantages?
4. Why did the "hard times" which came after the panic of 1837 destroy the early labor organizations?
5. What were the chief differences between the Knights of Labor and the American Federation of Labor?
6. Who are the Industrial Workers of the World, commonly known as the I. W. W., and for what do they stand? Find out what you can about the Amalgamated Clothing Workers; how do they differ from the American Federation of Labor? from the I. W. W.?
7. Are there any labor unions in your community? If so, what do they do?

SECTION II. INDUSTRIAL WARFARE

Immediate causes. Associations of employers and employees have often settled their troubles in a friendly way, but their disputes, especially in recent years, have more frequently resulted in long, fierce struggles. These contests have usually originated in disputes over wages, hours of labor, and working-conditions.

The closed shop. The weapons most commonly used by the workers to enforce their demands have been the closed shop, the strike, and the boycott. In the closed shop only members of unions are employed. Under such circumstances a labor organization is in a strong position to bargain with an employer, since it can control the plant by withdrawing the men as a body or by putting them back as a body. In the open shop, where nonunion laborers are also employed,

an employer can be more independent; for, if the union men quit, work can usually go on and the places of the strikers can as a rule be filled without much difficulty by nonunion men.

The strike. In a strike the laborers simply quit work. If there are no other workers to take their places the mine

MASS MEETING OF STRIKERS

During a strike the workers often get together to talk things over. In fair weather these gatherings are frequently held in the open air.

or factory must close. The struggle between an employer and strikers is generally won by the side which can hold out the longer. Since the workers as a rule have only their wages to live on, their ability to continue a strike depends on how much they have saved (usually the amount is low); on their ability to "stand off" the butcher, the grocer, and the landlord; and, if they are organized workmen, on how long the union can pay strike benefits.

In such a contest it may seem that the employer has the advantage, for his savings will make it possible for him to endure the strain longer than the workers can. But if the strike makes it impossible for him to fill his orders he will

not only lose the profits from his sales but he may lose his customers also; and if the strike continues long enough he may even have the savings of a lifetime wiped out. While an employer, then, need not fear hunger and cold as much as the strikers, he usually has more at stake than they do.

If there is no one to take the places of the strikers, a strike is usually a peaceful affair. In general, however, there are more workers than there are jobs; consequently, whenever there is a strike, there are usually persons eager to step into the vacancies. Some of these, known as strike-breakers, make it a business to help employers break up strikes. To prevent people from taking their jobs, strikers often resort to picketing; that is, they station themselves around the factory or mine and, by persuasion or threats, keep others from working in their stead. When peaceful picketing fails, lawless strikers frequently destroy property or attack those who wish to work. Such methods always hurt their cause by stirring up public feeling against them. Seldom is a strike won when public sentiment is against it.

The boycott. A boycott, in industrial warfare, is a refusal by a group to buy from any person or firm which has aroused their hostility. Usually the boycotters try to get the community also to refuse to purchase from such individuals. Labor journals have at times printed the names of those whom they regard as unjust to the worker in columns headed "Unfair" or "We don't patronize," but in some instances the courts have declared this kind of boycott illegal.

Labor organizations have been severely criticized at times for the lawless acts of their members during strikes, for the methods they have used in forcing men to join the union and employers to establish the closed shop, and for limiting the amount of work their members may do. Certainly, to force a man to join a private organization against his will or to compel an employer to hire none but union workers, provided he has been fair in his treatment of the union, is as contrary to American notions of fair play and freedom as

would be the attempt of employers to force laborers to toil under whatever conditions and for whatever wages they see fit to offer. When workmen receiving a fair wage shirk instead of putting their best efforts into their work, they not only hurt their employer, but by making goods cost more they injure the public and reduce their own income. The

STRIKERS STONING A BUILDING

The use of violence in a strike, whether by workers or employers, is condemned by all good citizens.

occasional attempt of unions to prevent an owner from working on his own property is also indefensible. The ablest labor leaders are quick to denounce all these actions.

The lockout and the blacklist. The chief weapons used by employers in industrial warfare are the lockout, the blacklist, and the injunction. The lockout is the opposite of the strike: instead of the men's quitting work, the employer dismisses them and locks the doors of the plant; by this action he hopes to force them to accept wages and conditions of labor which he lays down. The blacklist is a boycott, by employers, of workers—usually labor leaders—whom

they regard as objectionable; a man who has been black-listed finds it practically impossible to get work unless he secures it under an assumed name; the blacklist is a cruel and unfair method of taking away a man's chance to earn a living.

The injunction. In late years the most effective weapon of employers has been the injunction. An injunction is an

POLICEMEN GUARDING A RAILROAD CROSSING

The state troopers have been called at times to preserve order in industrial difficulties. They have usually served the community well by protecting valuable property and by preventing lawlessness.

order by a court forbidding or requiring a certain act. If an injunction is disobeyed the violator may be punished by fine or imprisonment, or by both, as the court decides. Injunctions are frequently granted against strikers to keep them from interfering with laborers who wish to remain at work and to prevent them from damaging property. Organized labor is opposed to the use of the injunction in labor difficulties.

Industrial warfare and the public. Although industrial warfare costs both capitalists and laborers hundreds of millions of dollars annually, it injures the public even more seriously.

A strike of the street-car men ties up an entire city; a lock-out by the coal operators, if long continued, may put out the fires in every home in the whole land; a struggle between the milkmen and their employers endangers the lives of all the babies in the community. And, in the long run, in all these instances, the public pays the bills. For these reasons there is a growing feeling that the public, as the body chiefly concerned, should be the final judge in all industrial disputes. For, as the Romans said two thousand years ago, "The safety of the public is the highest law."

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Define strike; closed shop; open shop; blacklist; boycott; injunction. Do you consider all of these objectionable? Explain.
2. What is meant by collective bargaining? industrial warfare? minimum wage?
3. Would a six-hour working-day be desirable? Give reasons for your answer.
4. Why is the support of public opinion of importance to strikers or employers in time of a strike? How does each group try to secure it? How does public opinion manifest itself?
5. Do policemen, firemen, or soldiers ever have the right to strike? Give reasons.

SECTION III. SOLUTIONS FOR OUR INDUSTRIAL PROBLEMS

Arbitration of labor difficulties. Many remedies have been tried and suggested for solving the problems of capital and labor. Conciliation boards composed of employers and employees have frequently settled industrial difficulties in a friendly way. At other times, when laborers and employers have not been able to solve a controversy by themselves, they have agreed to accept the decision of judges whom they have selected. Unfortunately both employers and employees have occasionally shown a disposition to break agreements they have made with each other, when it has seemed to their advantage to do so. Nothing could so hinder a peaceful

solution of industrial difficulties nor be more destructive of the organization concerned, for as President Wilson once said, "No organization can long endure that sets up its own strength as being superior to its plighted faith or its duty to society at large." A number of states have established voluntary arbitration boards, or commissions, to deal with such disputes as may be submitted to them. During two and a half years the Bureau of Mediation of Pennsylvania peaceably settled more than three hundred strikes. Compulsory arbitration of labor troubles by government officials has existed for years in New Zealand, Australia, and Canada; reports disagree on the success of the plan.

The Kansas plan. In Kansas a conflict between the coal operators and the miners in the winter of 1919 led to the adoption of a new method of handling industrial problems. A blizzard hit the state just as the miners went out on a strike. Thousands of women and children, according to Governor Allen, "were in actual danger of freezing and starving to death." In this emergency the governor called for volunteers to run the mines and then summoned the legislature in special session to consider a plan which he believed would prevent a similar crisis in the future. The outcome was the passage of an act establishing a Court of Industrial Relations. By this law the court is given power to act in any controversy between employers and employees in such basic industries as transportation and the production of food, fuel, and clothing, when such controversy affects the public welfare. It can summon employers and employees to give testimony concerning an industrial dispute; it can punish violators of the law by fine and imprisonment; it can alter labor contracts which it regards as unreasonable; and, if the continuous operation of one of the basic industries is endangered, it may supervise or take direct control of the industry. Appeals from its decisions may be taken to the State Supreme Court. The plan has not yet been in operation long enough to demonstrate its merits or its defects.

Socialism. Among the various solutions suggested for our industrial problems, few are more interesting than that of the socialists. Although socialists disagree among themselves on matters of detail as to what socialism is, most of them accept the chief ideas of Karl Marx, the founder of scientific socialism. Marx believed that the workers—and by “workers” he meant those who toil with their brains as well as those who work with their hands, musicians as well as mechanics, artists as well as bricklayers—should receive all the profits of industry. Under his plan factories, mines, railroads, and other means of production and distribution would be owned by society and be operated for its benefit. Marx did not advocate equal wages nor an equal division of wealth, neither did he object to the private ownership of property so long as it is used only for private purposes. His idea was to end the struggle between the laborer and the capitalist by doing away with the capitalistic class or, rather, by making all laborers capitalists. Instead of having capital owned by a part of the people for the benefit of a part of the people, he would have it owned by all the people for all the people.

Many people seriously object to socialism. They maintain that wherever common ownership has been tried—and common ownership is an important feature of socialism—it has usually proved a failure. They maintain that common ownership failed in Jamestown among the gentlemen who founded Virginia; that it failed in Plymouth among the devoted Pilgrims; that it failed in such settlements as that at New Harmony, Indiana; and that it seems to have failed in soviet Russia. Socialists deny that these experiments represent their ideas, but opponents of socialism, while admitting that the communities named were not conducted in accordance with Marx's theories and cannot therefore be regarded as positive proof that his ideas are wrong, insist that they resemble his plan in that they all underestimate the motive which in the past seems to have been the chief spur to human effort—the desire

for private personal gain. With this motive gone—and socialism, they declare, would practically destroy it—men would not put forth the energy and skill which have played such important parts in human progress during the past. In addition, they maintain that the extension of governmental control which would be necessary under socialism would result in wastefulness and in a loss of individual enterprise and freedom.

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MEN SEEKING EMPLOYMENT

Unemployed men often do not know where to go to look for work, and employers, on the other hand, are frequently unable to get in touch with laborers. Some cities and a number of states have established free employment agencies. Nation-wide bureaus, such as exist in several European countries, would also aid in solving this problem.

Social insurance. Poverty and suffering resulting from an inability to work because of sickness, unemployment, old age, or injuries from industrial accidents are among the chief causes of unrest and bitterness in the ranks of those who toil. As a remedy for industrial accidents practically every state in the Union now has on its statute books workmen's compensation laws. While there are numerous differences in these laws, they provide as a rule that employers must pay employees who are injured while at work a certain per cent

of their daily wages for a certain period of time. The sum which is paid varies in different states and in accordance with the gravity of the injury, but it is generally between \$10 and \$20 a week. In case of death from accident the

COÖPERATION IN INDUSTRY

In many factories nowadays the men are given a voice in determining the conditions in the plant in which they work. For example, a plan of government has been adopted in a Massachusetts tannery in which the general mass of workmen constitute a house of representatives, the twelve foremen a senate, and the head of the establishment, the president. The plan has proved successful in handling differences between the company and the employees and in installing labor-saving and production-increasing devices.

award is usually from \$3000 to \$5000; this is given to the dependents in a lump sum or in a series of payments extending over several years.

In addition to workmen's compensation laws, almost one third of the states now have measures which make it possible for industrial cripples to go to suitable schools and learn occupations for which their injury does not disqualify them.

By its rehabilitation acts of recent years the national government aids generously in this work. In very few states, however, has anything been done to guard workmen from poverty due to sickness, unemployment, or old age. In these respects the United States lags far behind such countries as Great Britain, Germany, and France.

Coöperation in industry. The most encouraging tendency in recent years among both employers and employees has been a growing recognition of the fact that only as they pull together can the best interests of both be served; that teamwork is as necessary for success in industry as it is in athletics. In some industries this feeling has resulted in arrangements by which profits, and even capital, are shared with the workers; in other industries representatives chosen by the workmen have been given places on the managing boards of firms and corporations. By 1922 more than six hundred concerns had adopted some plan of sharing profits or management, or both, with their employees. Labor courts have also been established with some success in various plants, especially in a number of the large clothing industries located in Chicago and Rochester.

Summary. Working-conditions, control of the industry, and the division of the profits of production are our greatest industrial problems. The inability of the individual laborer to make a good bargain on wages and working-conditions with his wealthy employer led to the gradual development of labor organizations, the greatest of which is the American Federation of Labor. During the same period the advantages of combination caused capitalists to consolidate various industries into great corporations and employers to form employers' associations. Difficulties about wages, hours, and working-conditions between employers and employees have frequently terminated in industrial warfare. The chief weapons used by workmen in the struggle have been the closed shop, the strike, and the boycott. The most important weapons of employers have been the lockout, the blacklist,

and the injunction. The public, which suffers most from industrial warfare, has attempted through boards of conciliation and arbitration and through industrial courts to secure friendly settlements of the various controversies. The socialists would end industrial difficulties by having society own the means of production and distribution, but most people do not believe that their plan would be successful. Social insurance, in which our own country is a laggard, is one means of relieving suffering caused by sickness, unemployment, old age, and industrial accidents. Many people think that the tendency of employers and employees to coöperate in the division of profits, the supplying of capital, and the managing of factories and mills is the most encouraging sign in industry during late years.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Would it be a good thing to have laws forbidding strikes? lockouts? blacklists? Give reasons.
2. Should the public ever interfere in a strike? What is meant by the "public"?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of compulsory arbitration of industrial difficulties?
4. Mr. William J. Bryan opposes compulsory arbitration of industrial difficulties, but favors compulsory investigation. What is the difference? What advantages or disadvantages do you see in Mr. Bryan's plan?
5. Give two arguments for socialism; two objections to it.
6. Describe a profit-sharing plan in operation in an industry in your community; do the employees have anything to say about the control of the business?
7. Prepare a report on one of the following topics: The Brook Farm Experiment; The One'da Settlement; The New Harmony Experiment; Communism among the Mormons (see Hillquit, History of Socialism in the United States, or McMaster, History of the People of the United States, index).
8. Which of the different solutions of the problem of capital and labor mentioned in the text do you think the best? Why?

9. What is a "company store"? Why is it frequently considered objectionable?

10. "Every investor is a public benefactor." Explain this statement.

11. How does the quotation at the head of this chapter relate to the problem of capital and labor?

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that strikes and lockouts should be forbidden by law.

Resolved, that employees should be given an equal share with investors in the management of the industries in which they are employed.

Resolved, that a tribunal similar to the Kansas Industrial Court should be established in our state (or in the United States).

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

The Diary of a Strike-Breaker

The Last Strike in our Community

Child Labor One Hundred Years Ago

The Journal of a Striker

Profit-Sharing

A Remedy for Unemployment

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PART FOUR. GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

CHAPTER XVII

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Every citizen should be willing to do his full part in the service of the community in which he lives.—E. C. MANN

Government is a trust, and the officers of the government are trustees; and both the trust and the trustees are created for the benefit of the people.

HENRY CLAY

SECTION I. TOWNSHIP AND COUNTY GOVERNMENT

The need of government. When boys or girls go camping they soon find it necessary to have rules and someone to enforce them if the camp is to be a success. When the Pilgrims came to America one of the first things they did was to draw up the Mayflower Compact, by which they organized themselves into "a civill body politick" for electing officers and making laws for the general good of the colony. Two hundred and thirty years later, when the "Forty-niners" rushed to the gold fields of California, they too found it necessary to adopt regulations and select committees to maintain order and punish crime. In fact, whenever people live near one another—whether in a summer camp or a rough mining community—their common needs and dangers compel them to establish some kind of government.

Development of township government. The different conditions which the early colonists found in the various parts of America caused different types of local government to develop. In New England, where there were numerous harbors, short and rapid streams, stony soil, superb timber, and an abundance of fish in the sea, the early comers settled in groups near the coast. Here, during the long winters, they employed their time in making such

articles as shoes, hats, barrel staves, homespun cloth, and rum; some of them engaged in the fisheries; others in ship-building and commerce. In addition, their strong religious beliefs made them settle near the church so that they could attend its services. These industrial and religious reasons, together with the need for defense from the savages, caused them to live close together. From these compact settlements came the New England town or township form of local government.¹

The town meeting. The most striking feature of New England local government was the town meeting. Here, in the meetinghouse or in the town hall, the voters of the township came together in the spring or fall to elect local officers and to discuss and decide questions of local concern. Such matters as taxes, roads and bridges, public safety, schools, and, in early days, the support of the Church and the waging of war on the Indians were all determined by it. Here the officers of the township reported what they had done during the past year, and if they had managed affairs badly that fact was very likely to be brought out by sharp questions from those present.

Township officers. Although New England township government has changed since colonial days, in fundamental matters it is much the same. Its most important officers are the selectmen, school board, clerk, treasurer, constables, and overseers of the poor. The selectmen, usually three in number, have general charge of the affairs of the township during the year. In general, they act on questions which arise when the town meeting is not in session, have charge of township property, and form an executive committee to carry out many of the measures adopted by the town meeting. The school board appoints teachers and has wide control over the schools. The town clerk calls the town

¹To avoid confusion the word "township" will be used hereafter rather than the New England term "town"; in the West the word "town" is used interchangeably with "village" or "small city."

meeting to order, keeps the minutes of its proceedings, issues marriage licenses, and records births and deaths. The constables are the police officers of the township. The overseers of the poor have charge of poor relief and manage the township poorhouse. There are numerous other officers in the township, but their duties are not of sufficient importance to need discussion here. Most township officers serve for a term of one year; frequently they are reëlected for a number of terms.

Development of county government. In the Southern colonies conditions differed greatly from those in New England. The long, slow-moving rivers made it easy for colonists to settle far from the coast; here, upon the rich bottom-lands, large plantations worked by slaves developed. Almost from the beginning agriculture had an importance it never attained in New England, while commerce and manufacturing, which became so prominent in the North, were never of much consequence in colonial days. Population was scattered over such a wide area that it was practically impossible for settlers to come together in town meetings; instead, there developed the county form of local government.¹

County officers. The county usually includes from three hundred to nine hundred square miles. Its chief ruling body is a board of commissioners or supervisors composed of men appointed in colonial times by the governor, but chosen nowadays by the voters of the county. The county board, as a rule, levies taxes for county expenses; looks after roads and bridges, cares for the poor, has charge of county buildings, and in general provides for matters which in New England would be attended to by the town meeting and the selectmen. It holds its meetings in the courthouse at the county seat.

Among the other officers found in most counties are the coroner, treasurer, auditor, superintendent of schools, sheriff, district attorney, and county clerk. The coroner must

¹In Louisiana the term "parish" is used instead of "county."

hold an inquest, or inquiry, over the body of anyone who dies in a suspicious way, in order to find out the cause of death; he is assisted by a jury, usually of six men; the findings of the inquest are turned over to the prosecuting attorney or to a local judge. The treasurer receives, safeguards, and pays out county taxes. The auditor examines

COUNTY COURTHOUSE, CLEVELAND, OHIO

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The Cuyahoga County Court House and the City Hall seen in the background form part of the civic-center group planned for Cleveland. Here are located the offices of most of the county and municipal officials.

the accounts of all county officers; usually he must approve all bills against the county before the treasurer will pay them. The sheriff sees that order is preserved; in large counties he is assisted by a number of deputies and may swear in special deputies in an emergency; if there is a serious riot he may call to his help all the able-bodied men of the county. He carries out the orders of the county court, has charge of all prisoners, is the keeper of the county jail, and, in some states, hangs convicted criminals. The district attorney, or state's attorney, gives legal advice to the other officers

of the county; he also represents the county in lawsuits and prosecutes lawbreakers. The county clerk usually prepares the docket of the court (a list of all cases for trial), keeps a record of the proceedings of the county board and the county court, issues marriage licenses, keeps a register of the births and deaths in the county, and, in some states, records deeds and mortgages. In some communities a part of this work is done by an officer called the clerk of the court. With few exceptions county officers are elected by popular vote and serve for terms varying from one to four years.

Development of county-township government. In the middle colonies the settlers, almost from the first, found agriculture and commerce both profitable. Some gave their attention wholly to farming, others to commerce, and some divided their energies between the two industries. This variety in occupation caused some of the settlers to live near one another, as in New England, and led to the development of the township; it caused others to reside in rural communities, miles from their neighbors, and led to the development of the county. In this way there developed a mixed form of local government in which both the township and the county occupied important parts.

Character of county-township government. In the county-township form of government, as it developed in New York, an annual town meeting is held which has charge of certain township matters; this meeting is of much less importance than the similar gathering in New England, for a board of supervisors composed of one member elected from each township and village in the county controls many of the affairs of the county. In Pennsylvania, on the other hand, townships exist, but no town meetings are held: most of the matters which concern the townships are under a board of commissioners chosen by the voters of the entire county.

Thus, in the Middle States, powers exercised by the town meeting in New England and by the county board in the South are divided between the township and the county. In

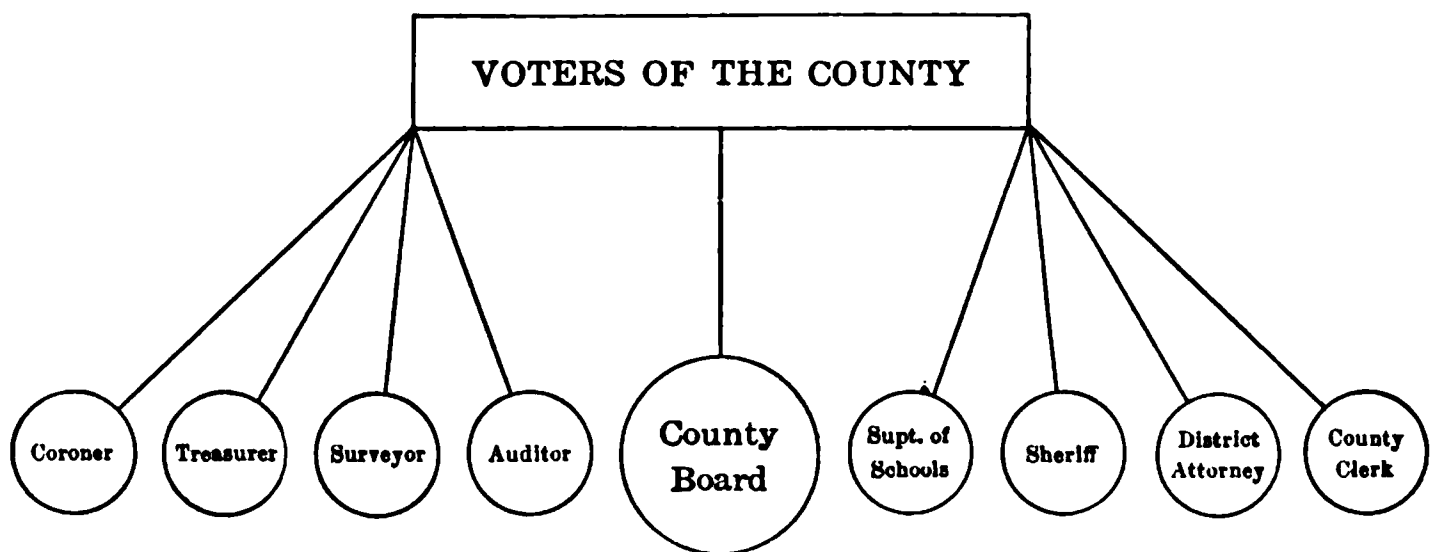
general the control of the schools, the highways, and the care of the poor are in charge of township officials; all other local matters are managed by the county board and by the different county officers whose names and duties are, roughly, as described on pages 435 and 436.

Local government in the West. In these different ways, then, there developed in colonial days three types of local government—the town meeting in New England, the county in the South, and the county-township in the middle colonies. As years passed and people gradually moved West they took with them to their frontier homes the ideas of local government with which they had been familiar in the East, much as they took their household goods and their cattle. Consequently, there grew up in the West local governments like those which had first developed in the Atlantic colonies. Since population in general moved westward on parallel lines of latitude, the New England townships were a prominent feature of local government in the North, the county was the chief form in the South, and a mixture of county and township became the chief form in the centrally located states.

Interesting conflicts over local government occasionally took place in the West. Illinois, for example, was first settled by Southerners, who, of course, brought with them the Southern idea of local self-government; when Illinois entered the Union, therefore, the county form of government was adopted. Years later New Englanders settled in large numbers in the northern and central portions of the state, and, naturally, they held deep-seated notions about the merits of the township. After a warm struggle a compromise was adopted (1848), by which the people of each county were permitted to adopt the township system whenever the majority of voters should so decide at any general election. Under this permission eighty-five of the one hundred and two counties in the state adopted the county-township form of local government.¹

¹ J. W. Garner, *Government in the United States*, pp. 22 f.

Defectiveness of county government. The county has been called "the jungle of American government." In no other unit are there so many independent and irresponsible elective officials. As a result, county affairs in many parts of the country are extravagantly and corruptly managed. An examination of the records of a New York county a few years ago, for example, revealed expenditures of county funds for "sets of solid-silver table knives and forks" for various



COUNTY GOVERNMENT

This diagram shows only the most important officials. Each official is independent of the other officials, and at times it is difficult, if not impossible, to fix the responsibility for shortcomings and mistakes in the management of county affairs.

county officials; in Michigan, according to a prominent citizen, there is "scarcely a county in which there has not been, within the last fifteen years, some official scandal sometimes bordering on criminality." These evils—and New York and Michigan are but illustrations of widespread conditions—have been promoted by the confused, decentralized form of county government which now obtains in practically every state in the Union. What is needed, many experts think, is the application to counties of some such method of consolidation as is already in operation in cities which have adopted the commission or the manager form of government. These types of government are explained in the third section of this chapter.

Present distribution of types of local government. At the present time only the six New England states have township government. The county division also exists there, but it is used for little except judicial purposes. As in the other states, the New England county usually has a court for trying criminal and civil cases and for the recording or probating of wills; if the population is too sparse for one county to support a court, two or three are joined in a judicial circuit; if the population is large, there may be separate courts for criminal, civil, and probate cases.

About one third of the states—all of them located in the South—have county government. The remaining states have the county-township form. In conclusion, it must be remembered that there are many variations in the details of local government in different parts of the country, and that what has been said in this section can be true, of course, of any one state only in a general way.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why is it necessary to have government? What is government?
2. Why did different kinds of local government develop in different parts of America in colonial times?
3. What kind of local government does your community have? How did it originate?
4. Compare the officers of your county with those mentioned on pages 435 to 437 inclusive.
5. From what officer can one obtain a birth certificate? a burial permit? a marriage license?
6. What is a deed? a mortgage? What does it mean to "record" a deed or a mortgage? Why is it necessary?
7. What are criminal cases? civil cases? probate cases? (Ask a lawyer.)
8. What was the amount of taxes collected in your county last year? For what was the money spent? (You can secure these figures from the report of your county treasurer.)

SECTION II. VILLAGE AND CITY GOVERNMENT

Why we have village and city governments. People who live in rural neighborhoods or in small villages find that the township and the county can usually attend to their local needs without difficulty. But when a community grows in population the people have special needs in the way of streets, sewers, and lighting, which greatly concern them, but which are of little interest to those who dwell in outlying districts. To meet these needs the special powers and machinery of organized village, town, and city government have been developed.

How local governments originated. All local governments—township, county, village, town, and city—secure their powers from the state. They can exist only as the people of the state permit them to exist, through their will as expressed in the state constitution or the state laws. In early days this was not the case: local governments existed in the colonies before the central governments; indeed, in some instances, they created the central governments. But as time passed, the states became more and more powerful, until today they not only control all local governments within their limits but use them as agents to carry out state laws as well as to serve the special needs of their people.

Requirements for incorporation. It is from the state, then, that a village or town must secure permission to be incorporated; that is, to have a government of its own. The requirements for incorporation vary in different states, but as a rule the law provides that whenever a certain number of the inhabitants of a locality petition for incorporation the community shall vote on the question, and if the question is carried the community shall forthwith be incorporated. To be incorporated, villages must usually contain at least a hundred people; a town must be considerably larger; and a city must number from one thousand to ten thousand inhabitants living within an area of four or five square miles.

Village and town government. In an incorporated village or borough the chief governing body is a small board or council of from three to nine members elected by the voters of the village for terms of one or two years. As a rule the board has power to levy taxes, construct streets and sewers, establish water and light plants, and pass ordinances for the health and safety of the community. The mayor or president of the board is the most important officer ; he is usually elected by the voters, sometimes by the board. He presides over the meetings of the board and enforces the ordinances which it passes. Other officers commonly found in incorporated villages and towns are the clerk, constable, treasurer, and justice of the peace. Their duties are much like those of the officers with similar names who were described in the preceding section.

How city charters are obtained. Not only is a city a larger place than a village or town, but its government is more complex. Usually its boundaries, form of government, and powers are definitely stated in a charter which is granted by the state legislature. Years ago it was the custom of many legislatures to pass an individual charter for each city, but the practice led to such favoritism and took so much time that it has been dropped in most states. Today cities are usually grouped into classes according to their size, and general laws are passed granting charters of a particular kind to cities in each class. Whenever the population becomes large enough to permit a community to enter a certain class, all that the people need to do, in order to get the proper charter, is to take the steps required by the law.

State authority and home rule. The power of the state over the local governments has sometimes been used so as to injure the inhabitants of towns or cities. Some years ago, for example, the legislature of Ohio compelled the city of Cleveland, against the wishes of the city taxpayers, to build a soldiers' monument at a cost of \$300,000; in like fashion, the legislature of Pennsylvania required Philadelphia to

erect a \$20,000,000 city hall which the citizens apparently did not want. When New York wished to construct an elevated railway—an enterprise which concerned the city alone—it first had to ask permission from the state legislature, and was granted authority then only on condition that the work be carried on under the supervision of a state commission.¹

While the extravagance and political corruption which have occasionally taken place in cities may justify some measure of outside control, experiences like these have led, in recent years, to a vigorous demand from the cities for “home rule,” or for control over their own affairs. This demand has been met in a number of states by constitutional amendments which provide that before a law affecting a particular city shall go into effect it must be approved by the voters of that city. In some states, cities are allowed to draw up their own charters and adopt them by popular vote on condition that nothing in their charters shall conflict with the constitution or the laws of the state.

Mayor and council government. Most American cities are governed by a council and a mayor. The council, in most instances, sits as a single body; in a few cities it is divided into two bodies. Councils vary in size from eight or ten members to seventy or eighty. Aldermen, as members of the council are frequently called, are usually elected from the separate wards into which most cities are divided, occasionally from the city as a whole. Their terms are generally one or two years; in a few cities they are four years.

The council makes the laws, or ordinances, of the city. As a rule it has power to levy taxes, organize the city departments, act on the mayor's appointments, and pass ordinances on such matters as health, traffic, streets, and amusements. Through its committees and through its power to pass on appointments it also shares in the enforcement of ordinances.

¹J. W. Garner, *Government in the United States*, p. 33.

It is the duty of the mayor to see that the laws of the city are obeyed. He is elected by popular vote for a term varying from one to four years. He appoints the heads of departments and many city officers (subject usually to the approval of the council), presides at the meetings of the council, and as a rule approves or disapproves its measures.

A CITY COUNCIL IN SESSION

City councils vary widely in membership. What are the chief advantages of a small council? of a large council?

In case he vetoes, or disapproves, an ordinance a two-thirds vote of the council is usually necessary to enact it. In some municipalities he has also the power to pardon persons guilty of petty offenses. His salary varies from \$1000 or \$2000 a year in small cities to \$18,000 in Chicago.

Among the other officers who are usually elected by the voters under the mayor-council form of government are the treasurer, clerk, and municipal judges. The treasurer serves as keeper of the city's funds; the clerk, as the custodian of its ordinances and records. The municipal judges try cases and decide whether the law has been broken and, if so,

what penalty shall be inflicted on the lawbreaker; they are usually aided in this work by juries selected for the purpose.

City departments. Most of the work of the city, as we have seen earlier in this book, is carried on by departments. The most important of these are the departments of health, public works, police, fire, and finance. The department of

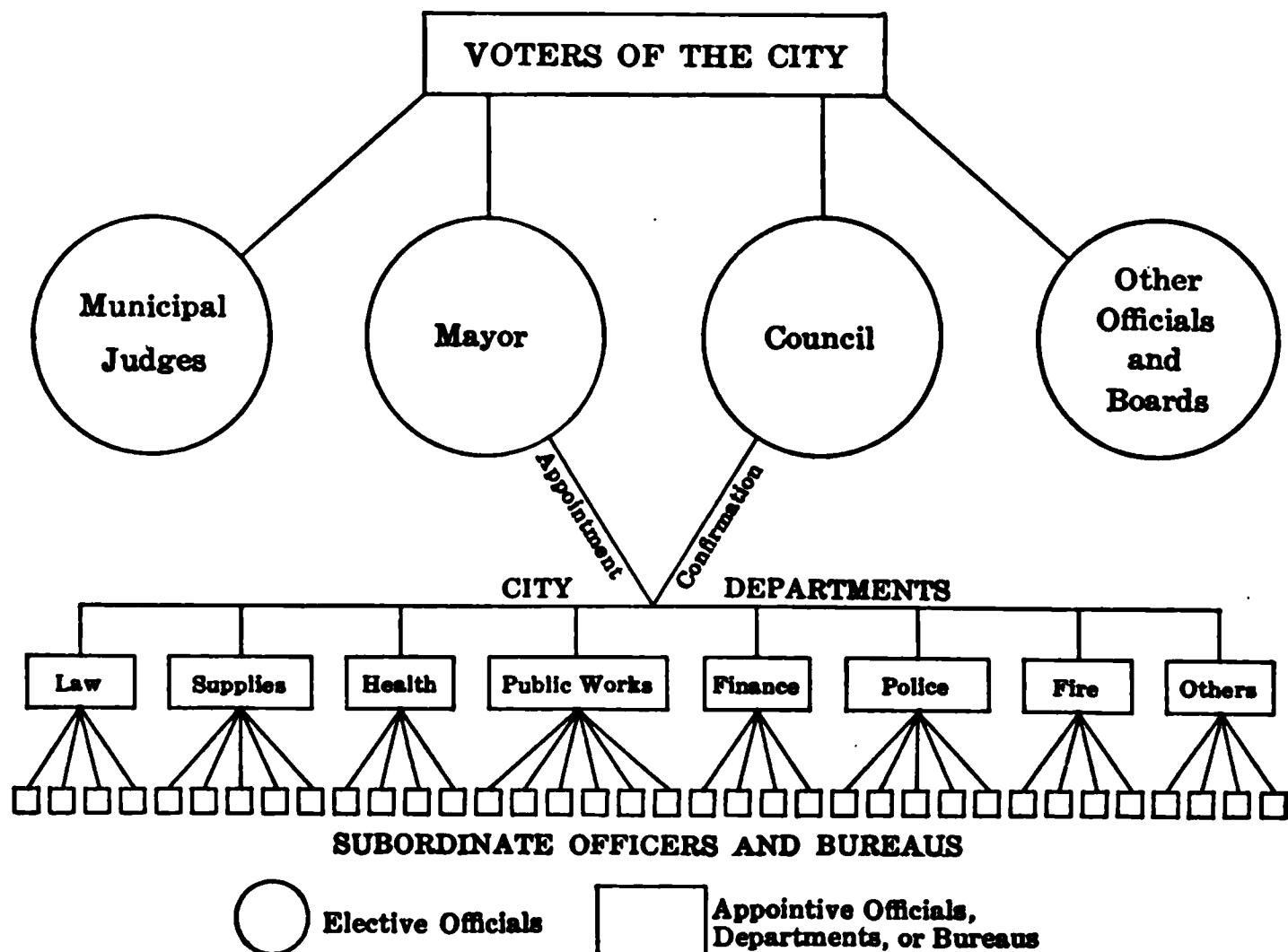
SAN FRANCISCO CITY HALL

This is the nucleus of the magnificent group of public buildings which San Francisco has planned as a civic center.

education, often called the school board, frequently receives its powers directly from the state legislature, not from the local government (see pages 62-64).

Defects in mayor-council government. In recent years there has been much dissatisfaction with the mayor-council form of government because it has so frequently resulted in waste, poor service, and corrupt politics. Its workings and machinery are so complicated, it is said, that the ordinary citizen either cannot discover who is at fault when something goes wrong in the city or is helpless when he finds out.

If, for example, garbage and ashes are collected only at intervals of two weeks, a citizen may make a complaint at the department of public works only to receive the reply that the mayor has ordered that collections be made every two weeks. On visiting the office of the mayor he may be told



MAYOR AND COUNCIL GOVERNMENT

In this diagram only the most important officials, departments, and bureaus are indicated. How does the organization of your city government differ from that shown above?

that collections should be made more frequently, but that the council did not appropriate enough money to meet the expense. The ordinary citizen does not have time to call on twenty-five or fifty aldermen, and even if he did his visits would probably accomplish nothing. Or, to illustrate further, the council may pass an ordinance wanted by the people only to have it vetoed by the mayor; if signed, it may be neglected by him and department officials, either because they are against the measure or are indifferent to it.

In fact, the chief defect in mayor-council government, many people declare, is that it so divides governmental powers as to make it impossible for the people to fix responsibility. The mayor may check the council by vetoing its measures, by failing to carry them out, or by enforcing them in a half-hearted way; the council likewise may fail to adopt the recommendations of the mayor or it may refuse to confirm his appointments. These conditions are possible largely because the lawmaking power and the law-enforcing power in the government are independent of one another. As a result, the wishes of the people are not fulfilled, the whole city suffers, and the community can do little to better the situation.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of the needs of a large city which could not be met advantageously by township or county government.
2. Is your community incorporated? How does the origin of "incorporation" help us to understand its present meaning? (Look up the word in the dictionary.) What are the advantages of incorporation?
3. How can a city charter be obtained in your state? What does such a charter contain? (Examine the charter of your own city.)
4. Get a copy of a city ordinance. How does it begin? What do the opening words mean?
5. Which is better—a large council or a small one? Why? A council of one chamber or two chambers? Why?

SECTION III. TENDENCIES IN CITY GOVERNMENT

Origin of the commission plan. In the fall of 1900 a terrific hurricane and tidal wave swept over Galveston, Texas, destroying a large part of the city and killing thousands of the inhabitants. In the crisis that followed, the mayor and council showed themselves so helpless that a few energetic, public-spirited men, convinced that the existing government

was incapable of handling the situation, persuaded the state legislature to grant the city a new charter. This charter placed the entire government—legislative, financial, and executive—in the hands of five men to be elected by the voters.¹ Council, mayor, and all other elective officers were done away with. As a result confusion, complexity, and irresponsibility came to an end, and wastefulness and corruption became in large part memories of the past.

The Galveston plan. In the commission plan, as adopted in Galveston, the voters elect five commissioners to serve for terms of two years—two to be elected one year and three the next. The one who receives the largest vote at the election when three are chosen is the mayor; he serves as chairman of the commission and has general supervision over the affairs of the city, but his power is no greater than that of his colleagues. Each of the other commissioners acts as the supervisor of one of the four departments into which the city government is divided: finance and revenue, waterworks and sewerage, police and fire, streets and public property. As a body the commission appoints the experts who serve as heads of the departments and removes them if necessary; it also levies taxes and enacts such ordinances as it thinks desirable. Since in this plan the lawmaking body and the law-enforcing body are one, there is no difficulty in telling who is responsible for the kind of government the city has. So successful did commission government prove in Galveston that it has been established not only in many other cities in Texas but in hundreds of cities in other states.

The Des Moines plan. In Des Moines, Iowa, commission government was introduced in 1907 with a number of new features. These new features, with one exception, have worked so well that the majority of the cities which have adopted commission government since 1907 have introduced them also. The one unfortunate change which has been

¹ During the first two years three of the commissioners were appointed by the governor.

severely criticized concerns the commissioners: in the Galveston plan the commissioners give only part of their time to the city, direct charge of municipal activities resting in the hands of experts appointed to their positions by the commission; in the Des Moines plan, however, the commissioners give all their time to the city and each one is supposed to be an expert in his field. Now it is practically impossible



COMMISSION GOVERNMENT, DES MOINES, IOWA

Only the most important officials and agencies of the city are shown in this diagram. In what respects is the organization of commission government simpler than that under the mayor-council plan?

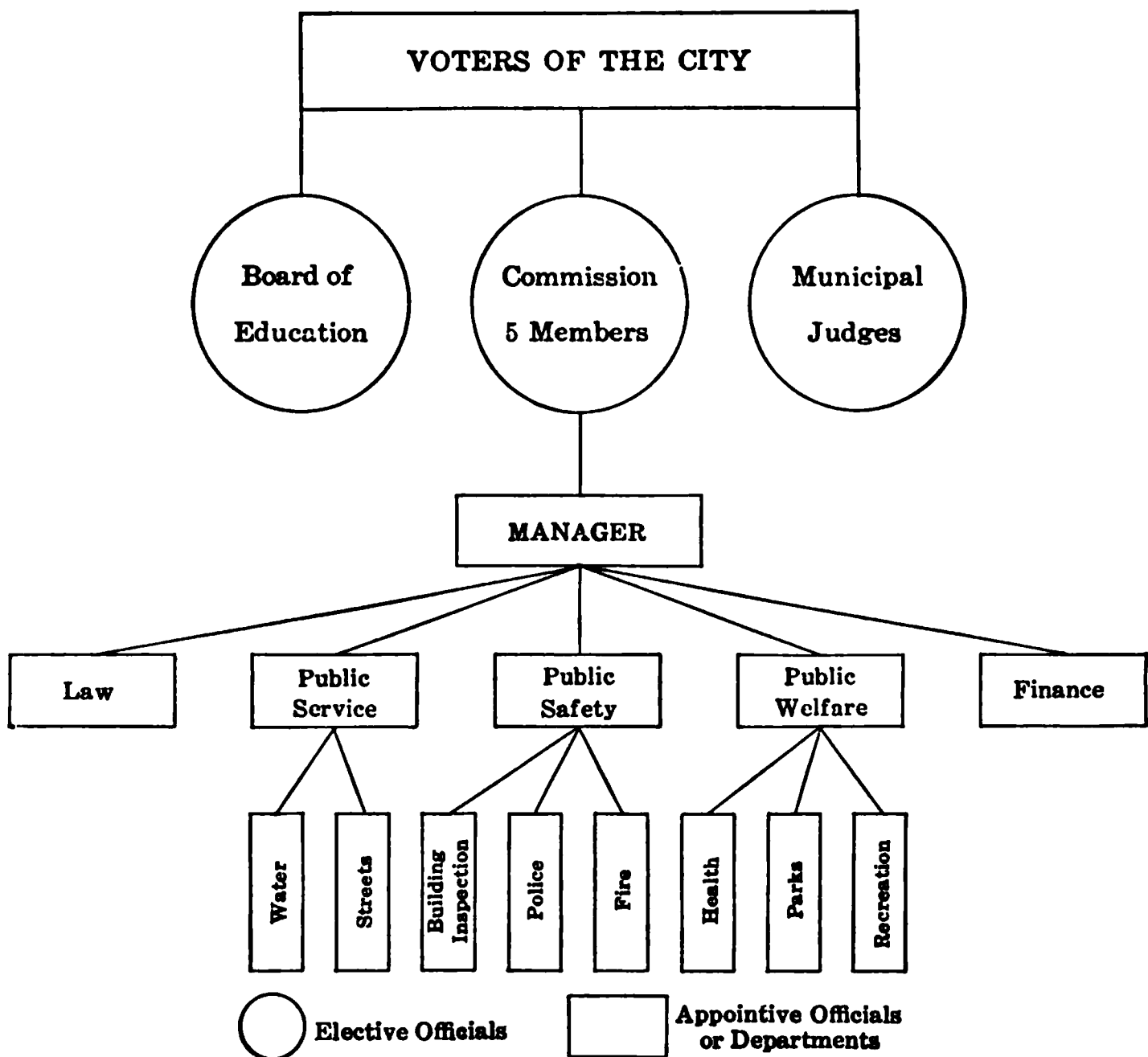
to get the ablest men in a community to drop their private business affairs altogether; it is equally difficult to elect to political positions men who are real experts, since such men seldom go into politics. Accordingly this feature of the Des Moines plan has often resulted in placing mere politicians or men of only ordinary ability on the commission, and in consequence the city's affairs have suffered.

The other changes in commission government introduced by Des Moines are regarded more favorably. Under the Galveston plan the commissioners have almost unlimited power during their terms in office, and even if they do something the people do not want, or refuse to do something

they greatly desire, the people cannot help themselves until the next election. In order to remedy these defects Des Moines introduced the initiative, the referendum, and the recall. By the initiative a certain per cent of the voters can, by petition, compel the commission to submit an ordinance, which the petitioners propose, to popular vote; if it is adopted by a majority of the voters it becomes law. By the referendum a certain number of voters can, by petition, force the commission to refer for the approval of the voters any measure it has passed; if this approval is denied, the measure does not become law. By the recall the voters can remove from office at a special election—which must be held if a certain proportion of the voters so petition—any of the commissioners. In short, the initiative enables the people to make a law, the referendum enables them to kill a law, and the recall makes it possible for them to control their officials at all times. Des Moines also provided for nonpartisan elections and for a civil-service committee to examine all applicants for the lower positions in the city's service.

Effect of the initiative, referendum, and recall. The initiative, referendum, and recall have been severely criticized because of the expense they involve, the fear in which they keep honest public officials, the opportunities they afford machine politicians, and the lack of interest in them shown by the better class of citizens. They seem to have served a useful purpose, however, by enabling the people to control their officials after election. It has not been necessary to use them very often, but the possibility that they might be employed—that they are clubs behind the door, ready for use—has served, apparently, to remind public officers of their obligation to carry out the people's will. Unfortunately the people have used them occasionally to prevent desirable measures and to remove able officials whose wise acts temporarily aroused popular disfavor. It is still too early for a final conclusion as to the merits or defects of these devices.

The city-manager plan. One flood brought about commission government in Galveston; another flood led to the city-manager plan in Dayton, Ohio. Hardly had the waters of the Miami River receded, before the citizens of Dayton,



CITY-MANAGER GOVERNMENT, DAYTON, OHIO

In what important respects does the city-manager plan differ from the commission plan of city government?

aware of difficulties in the rebuilding of their devastated city and conscious of the inefficiency of their council and mayor, decided to adopt city-manager government. This form of government—first tried in Staunton, Virginia—has as its basis the commission, but it places the executive power in the hands of one person, known as the manager. Under this plan the city is looked upon as a business corporation: the

citizens are the stockholders, the commission they elect is the board of directors, and the city manager (appointed by the commission) is the superintendent or general manager.

In Dayton the voters elect a commission of five for a term of four years. The commission levies taxes, appropriates money, passes ordinances, appoints a civil-service board, and selects a city manager. The manager enforces the city ordinances, advises the commission on the needs of the community, and appoints city employees—in most cases from the list of those who have passed the requirements of the civil-service board—and dismisses them if he thinks best. He may at any time be removed by the commission or recalled by the voters. The initiative, referendum, recall, and nonpartisan elections are all provided for in the Dayton charter. So well did the new plan of government work that by 1922 more than two hundred cities had adopted it.

Advantages of the city-manager plan. The chief advantages claimed for city-manager government are its efficiency and its fixing of responsibility. The manager is an expert in municipal affairs; since he need not be a resident of the city which employs him, his record, and not his politics, forms the basis of his appointment; like the commissioners in the Des Moines plan, he devotes his entire time and energy to the city. The large powers put in his hands enable him to give the city good government; at the same time they make it possible for everyone to know who is to blame in case of inefficiency or waste. If the city's affairs are handled badly the commission can remove the manager instantly, and if the commission does not remove a poor manager or if it does not support a good one the people have in the recall an effective means of removing the commission, the manager, or both.

Objections to city-manager and commission government. Those who oppose the manager plan maintain that a city is not a business organization, that efficiency in administering affairs should not be the only end in municipal government, that the city should serve as a school to train political leaders

for state and nation, that opportunity for such training is destroyed by the manager plan, and that both it and commission government enable wealthy men and powerful corporations to control the city for their own benefit. Thoughtful people will doubtless differ as to whether the friends or foes of commission and city-manager government have the better of the argument, but all except a very few will agree that both methods must have a longer trial before their real merits or faults are proved.

Summary. In colonial days three kinds of local government developed in this country—the town-meeting type in New England, the county type in the South, and a mixture of the township and the county type in the middle colonies. In the West the county became the chief form of local government in the south and the township-county the chief form in the north. Since such local governments were not well adapted to meet the needs of people living close together, organized village, town, borough, and city governments were established. At first such corporations were governed by mayors and councils, but since 1900 dissatisfaction with the complexity, corruption, and inefficiency which have so often characterized mayor-council control has caused many municipalities to adopt the commission or the city-manager form of government. In the long run, of course,—and this is a point frequently overlooked,—no plan of government, no matter how excellent, can serve the people well unless it has behind it strong and intelligent public support.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. If you live in a city, is it governed according to the mayor-council, commission, or city-manager plan? Which of these forms seems the best? Why?
2. Define "initiative" and "referendum." Can you have one without the other? Explain. Is either in use in your community?
3. What is the recall? State its advantages and disadvantages. Should it be applied to judges?

4. What is meant by nonpartisan elections? Why are they especially desirable in local communities? Do you have them in your community?

5. What does it mean to "fix the responsibility" in the government? Of what value is it to fix the responsibility?

6. What are the chief differences between the Galveston and the Des Moines plan of commission government? Which plan seems the better? Why?

7. What is the greatest need of your local government? How can it be met?

8. Compare the tax rate in your city with the rate in other cities of the same size. Account for the difference. Compare in like manner the debts of these cities.

9. Explain the quotation from Henry Clay at the head of the chapter.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that our city should adopt the city-manager form of government.

Resolved, that city governments should be given complete control over their own local affairs.

Resolved, that the initiative, referendum, and recall should be adopted by our community.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

How Indian Tribes were Governed

What our Mayor Does

How our Camp was Governed

A Meeting of the Council

How Ordinances are Made

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CHAPTER XVIII

STATE GOVERNMENT

An indestructible Union composed of indestructible states.

SALMON P. CHASE

SECTION I. THE STATES AND THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

The forming of the Union. Each star in the American flag, as every boy and girl knows, stands for one of the states in the Union, and each stripe represents one of the thirteen original colonies. During the century and a half before the Stars and Stripes were first unfurled, these thirteen colonies grew up, one after another, along the Atlantic coast. Originating, for the most part, as grants of land from English rulers to trading companies and court favorites, they were from their beginning separate from each other in matters of government. This separation was increased by intervening stretches of tangled wilderness, numerous swift-flowing rivers, and poor methods of communication and transportation. In the Revolutionary War, however, the colonies joined forces, won their independence, and formed themselves into the United States of America.

Government of territories. The territory west of the Appalachians now came into the hands of the national government, and from it and other regions acquired in the next seventy years were created one by one the additional members of the Union. At first the question of how these Western territories should be governed was a most serious problem. After several proposals had failed Congress finally adopted the Northwest Ordinance (1787) and thereby laid down a plan of territorial government which has been followed ever since.

- . This famous law provided (1) that while population was sparse the territory should be under the control of officers appointed by the national government, (2) that when population grew so that the people could support a government the territory should be administered largely by officers of their own choosing, and (3) that when population became still larger the territory should be admitted as a state equal in all respects to the other states. So well did the plan work that, with a few changes, it has been followed from that day to this in the government of national territories. Whether the government of the islands annexed at the end of the Spanish-American War—Porto Rico, the Philippines, and the Ladrones—will prove a departure from our original policy is yet to be determined.

How a territory becomes a state. With the exception of the thirteen origi-

nal states and one or two others all the states were at one time territories. When Congress considers the population of a territory large enough for statehood, it usually passes an enabling act permitting the people to elect a convention to draw up a state constitution. After this constitution has been approved by vote of the people of the territory and by

BIRTHPLACE OF OLD GLORY

In this old-fashioned brick house in Philadelphia, according to tradition, Betsy Ross, at General Washington's request, made the first American flag, June, 1777. This flag had thirteen alternate red and white stripes, and thirteen white stars arranged in a circle on a blue field.

Congress, the president issues a proclamation declaring the territory a member of the Union, and in a short time a new star appears in the flag.¹

The states and the national government. At the present time there are forty-eight states in the Union. Each state has its own government and, regardless of its size, is the equal of every other state so far as control over its own affairs goes. Its relation to the United States is not like the relation of a county or city to the state. A county is a mere division of the state; it is created by the state and secures all its powers from the state. But a state has powers that are equal, and in some instances superior, to those of the United States.

In fact, the people established both the United States and the various states and guaranteed the existence of each in the national constitution. To the government of the United States they gave power over matters which touch the nation as a whole, such as foreign affairs and the postal service; to the states they gave authority over matters which, for the most part, are of local concern. In most of the everyday affairs of life the ordinary citizen comes into contact with the state government much more frequently than with the national government. As James Bryce puts it:

His direct taxes are paid to officials acting under state laws. The state or local authority constituted by state statutes registers his birth, appoints his guardian, pays for his schooling, gives him a share in the estate of his father deceased, licenses him when he enters a trade (if it be one needing a license), marries him, divorces him, entertains civil actions against him, declares him a bankrupt, hangs him for murder; the police that guard his house, the local boards which look after the poor, control highways, impose water rates, manage schools—all these derive their legal powers from its state alone.²

¹ There is no set figure which determines when a territory is large enough for statehood: Nevada numbered 20,000 people; New Mexico, 330,000.

² James Bryce, *American Commonwealth*, Vol. I, p. 425. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Are the states older than the Union or is the Union older than the states? Can you find facts in American history which seem to support both views? Does it make any difference which view is right? Did it make any difference in days gone by? Explain.

2. What other important provisions did the Northwest Ordinance contain besides those mentioned in this section?

3. Was your state ever a territory? If so, how was it governed? How did it become a state? When?

4. The United States has been called "the greatest colonizing nation in the history of the world." What facts can you mention which tend to support this statement?

SECTION II. STATE CONSTITUTIONS AND STATE GOVERNMENTS

What constitutions are for. A constitution defines and limits the powers of the government. In it the people state what the government can do and what it cannot do. If the legislature passes a law which violates the constitution the people do not need to obey it. Some years ago, for example, the New York legislature passed a law which limited the number of hours of work of employees in bakeries. One baker, claiming that the law violated the state constitution, refused to obey it. He took the matter to court, and the highest tribunal in the state, to which the case finally came, decided in his favor and declared the act null and void. Some time later the constitution was amended so as to give the legislature authority to pass laws limiting hours of labor in certain occupations, and today such laws are in force in New York. The important thing to notice in this connection, however, is not the amending of the constitution but the way in which the constitution, as interpreted by the courts, restricts the power of the legislature.

What constitutions contain. The most important provisions in state constitutions are (1) a bill of rights defining the

rights of citizens; (2) a description of the government, including a list of the state officers and their duties; (3) a statement of the powers of the government; and (4) a method by which the constitution may be amended or changed.

In early days state constitutions were brief. Rarely did they exceed five thousand words; that of New Hampshire numbered only six hundred words. But in recent years they have become so lengthy that in some states they make good-sized books; the constitution of Oklahoma, for instance, contains about fifty thousand words. The chief cause for this increase in size has been a growing distrust of state legislatures; constitutional conventions, accordingly, have put in their constitutions detailed provisions, like laws, on questions which in former times they would have left to the legislatures. The result is bulky documents which are soon out of date and which need to be frequently changed or entirely altered. In consequence, amendments are made almost every year to the constitutions of some states.

How amendments are made. Constitutions may be amended in a number of ways. In many states, before an amendment becomes part of the constitution it must (1) pass both houses of the legislature (in some states passage by two successive sessions is also required) and (2) be approved by a majority of those who vote on it or, as in some states, by a majority of the voters taking part in the election at which it is submitted. In a few states a certain per cent of the voters may initiate an amendment by sending a petition containing the change they wish to the secretary of state, who must then place the proposed amendment on the ballot to be voted upon at the next election. If the majority of the voters approve the proposed amendment, it becomes part of the constitution.

Similarities in state governments. Although the governments of the various states differ in matters of detail, in most respects they are alike. Each is a republic, each is limited in power by the Constitution of the United States and by its

own constitution, and each has much the same kind of governmental machinery. In each there are (1) a lawmaking body usually called the legislature or general assembly; (2) a law-enforcing head called the governor, who is assisted by various executive officials; and (3) a judicial department consisting of a system of courts to interpret and apply the laws.

MINNESOTA STATE CAPITOL, ST. PAUL

Many of the state capitols are patterned after the National Capitol (see frontispiece). As a rule, the legislature and the state supreme court hold their sessions in the capitol building. Here, too, the governor and the other administrative officials of the state usually have their offices.

The legislature. In all the states the legislature is made up of two houses usually called the senate and the house of representatives. As a rule any voter may be elected to either house. In a few instances the age requirement is higher for the senate than for the house. The salaries of senators and representatives are equal. Each house elects its own officers and determines its own rules.

The senate is the smaller of the two houses. Its members are elected by popular vote from the senatorial districts into which most states are divided. In addition to helping make

the laws, the senate usually acts on the governor's appointments; it also serves as a court in cases of impeachment. The terms of senators as a rule are four years; in some states, two.

The house of representatives—or assembly, as it is occasionally called—is elected in some states from the counties, in others from districts. It is a much larger body than the senate. Its powers are almost wholly legislative. Its members serve usually for two years; in three states the term is one year, in three others it is four.

Powers of state legislatures. With a few exceptions state legislatures meet every two years—usually in the odd-numbered years. As a rule their sessions are limited to fifty or sixty days. While their powers are not the same in all the states, owing to the different limitations put upon them by their state constitutions, they all have authority to pass laws on such matters as contracts, marriage, divorce, local government, health, taxation, poor-relief, elections, crime, and education. Much legislative power, as we have seen, is exercised with their permission by such local law-making bodies as the county boards and city councils.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is a constitution? Of what value is it? What great countries have no written constitutions?

2. How many constitutions has your state had? When was the present one adopted? Compare it with the earlier constitutions as to length; as to provisions. What are the chief changes?

3. What changes, if any, do you think should be made in your present state constitution? How can they be obtained? What would be necessary to secure a new state constitution? Where can you find the answers to the last two questions?

4. What does the bill of rights of the constitution of your state contain?

5. In what respects does the government of your state differ from the description in this section?

SECTION III. HOW LAWS ARE MADE

Introduction of bills. When a member of the legislature wishes to get a certain measure enacted into law he must first put it in proper legal form. To help legislators draw up bills, as proposed laws are called, many states now have legislative reference bureaus where members of the legislature can obtain expert assistance and reliable information. After the measure has been properly drawn up the legislator hands it to the clerk or drops it into a basket, or "hopper," kept for that purpose in some legislative chambers. It is then read by title by the clerk, given a number, ordered to be printed, and referred by the presiding officer to the committee which has charge of subjects covered by the bill. This reading of the title is called the "first reading." Under the rules no measure can become law without three "readings" on three different days. This requirement is to lessen the danger of hasty and unwise legislation.

Any member may introduce as many bills as he wishes. In some states, however, bills cannot be introduced within a certain number of days before the end of the session. This is to prevent the crowding of measures at the end of the session, when they cannot be carefully considered and might therefore be passed in haste or rejected without an adequate examination.

Legislative committees. Committees play a most important part in lawmaking. They are usually composed of from five to ten members. They have practically complete control over bills which are referred to them. They may combine several measures into one or divide one measure into several; they may alter a bill so that the member who introduced it cannot recognize it, or they may substitute for it a totally different measure; if they choose, they may do nothing whatever with it. In fact, the great majority of bills which reach them are never heard from again; they are then said to be "shelved," or "pigeonholed."

While its meetings are generally secret, a committee frequently holds public "hearings" for a measure which it seriously considers. Here the friends and the foes of the bill appear to argue for or against it and to answer questions which may be asked concerning it. The action of a committee and also of the legislature is often influenced by lobbyists. Lobbyists are persons, usually representing various interests and organizations, who try to get legislators to support or oppose certain measures; the practice is called lobbying. If a committee approves a bill it returns it to the house with a recommendation that it be passed.

Legislative action on bills. The bill is now given a place on the "calendar," or list of measures before the house, and in time comes up for its "second reading." This reading is usually marked by some debate on the measure, which sometimes is amended and occasionally is returned for changes to the committee. If the bill passes the second reading, it comes up some time later for its "third reading," when, if passed by a majority of the members present, it is signed by the presiding officer and sent to the other house. Here the same process is followed—the "three readings," committee examination, and so on. If it passes these barriers successfully it goes to the governor for his signature.

If a bill is altered in any way during its passage through the second house, it must be returned to the house from which it came. If this house accepts the changes which have been made, the measure then goes to the governor; if not, the two houses usually appoint a conference committee composed of members of each house to see whether some compromise cannot be reached which will permit the measure to become law. If they fail to agree, the bill dies; if they succeed and their recommendations are adopted by both houses, it goes to the governor. If the governor signs the bill, it becomes law; if he vetoes it, the only way to make it law is by passing it "over his head." In most states this requires a two-thirds vote and is usually difficult to secure.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Compare the steps in the making of an ordinance by the city council with those required in the making of a law by the state legislature.
2. Why should so many steps be required in making a law? Can you give a reason for each step?
3. Do legislative committees have too much power? How are committees appointed in the legislature of your state? Why is the method of their appointment important?
4. Does your state regulate lobbying? Should it be regulated?

SECTION IV. THE STATE EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

The governor. Every state has a governor, who is elected by the voters of the state. His term of office, with few exceptions, is either two or four years. He has executive, legislative, and judicial powers. As an executive, it is his duty to see that the laws of the state are enforced. For this purpose he may, if necessary, order the state police or the state militia to any part of the state to put down riots and maintain order; if this force proves inadequate he may call upon the president of the United States for military assistance in enforcing the laws. As an executive, he also fills certain offices by appointment, but such appointments must usually be confirmed by the senate.

Legislative powers of governor. The legislative duties of the governor are (1) to inform the legislature from time to time about conditions in the state and to recommend to it such laws as he thinks necessary; (2) to call the legislature in special session when emergencies arise; (3) to approve or veto bills which are submitted to him. The influence of the governor in making laws depends largely on his ability. Strong governors like Roosevelt, Wilson, Cox, and Lowden have been able by forceful messages and tactful leadership to arouse public opinion and to secure the passage of measures which weak men could never have obtained.

Usually the governor has from three to ten days to examine bills passed by the legislature before he needs to act on them. In many states, in the case of an important measure, he holds a "hearing" similar to that of legislative committees, where arguments for and against the bill may be presented. In some states he has the right to veto particular

EXECUTIVE CHAMBER, ALBANY, N. Y.

Here the governor of New York holds hearings on legislative measures and transacts other business of an official character. The room was occupied at different times by Grover Cleveland, Theodore Roosevelt, and Charles E. Hughes, each of whom served as governor of New York.

clauses in a bill without disapproving the entire measure; this power has been of especial value in enabling the governor to prevent unwise appropriations.

Judicial power of governor. Under his judicial power the governor may commute, or lessen, the punishment of a law-breaker or he may pardon him altogether. He may, for example, release an offender from paying a fine or change a death sentence to life imprisonment (this is called commuting a sentence), or he may, by pardon, release a prisoner

entirely from paying the penalty of his offense. The governor is frequently assisted in this work by a state board which examines all applications for pardon and recommends whatever action it thinks is desirable. In some states the governor may not issue pardons except upon recommendation of this board; this restriction is to assist him in the use of the pardoning power and to prevent such leniency as might encourage crime or incite to lynching.

State officials. In addition to the governor the chief executive officers in most states are the lieutenant governor, treasurer, secretary of state, attorney-general, auditor, and superintendent of public instruction. The lieutenant governor usually presides over the senate; if the governor dies, resigns, or is removed from his position the lieutenant governor succeeds to the office. The treasurer is custodian of the money of the state; he receives the taxes and pays the bills of the state. The secretary of state publishes the laws, takes care of important state papers, and countersigns the commissions and proclamations of the governor. The attorney-general gives legal advice to state officials and represents the state in suits at law where it is concerned. The auditor examines the financial accounts of state officers and institutions and usually must approve bills before they can be paid by the treasurer. The work of the superintendent of public instruction was described in a previous chapter (see page 64).

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Who is your governor? What is his term of office? his salary? How may he be removed from office?
2. In your state which is the greatest—the governor's executive, legislative, or judicial power? Which should be the greatest? Give reasons for your opinion.
3. Is there a board of pardons in your state? If so, what are its powers? How might an unwise use of the pardoning power incite to lynching?

4. Describe the work of one of these men as governor: Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, James M. Cox, Frank O. Lowden, Charles E. Hughes.

5. Describe the seal of your state. Who has charge of it? For what is it used?

6. Does your state have all the officials named on page 467? Who seems to be the most important of your minor state officials? How does he secure his position?

SECTION V. THE STATE JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

Why we have courts. In enforcing a law many hard questions come up. When a person is accused of murder, for example, it is necessary to know the facts in order to tell whether he is guilty. Did he kill the victim? If so, was his deed accidental or was it deliberately planned? Did he act under great excitement or provocation? Was his deed in self-defense? Was he sane at the time? The answers to these questions have great importance in determining whether he is guilty of a crime and, if so, of how great a crime.

It is also difficult many times to tell what certain clauses in a law mean or how they should apply in a particular case. If a man is found guilty of a crime the severity of his punishment, of course, should depend on the circumstances under which he committed the crime. In civil cases—cases in which property is involved, such as inheritances or contracts—difficult questions also arise concerning the meaning and application of the laws. It is for the purpose of solving problems like these and of giving a fair and public trial to all that judges and juries are provided. In theory, at least, all Americans are equal before the law.

State courts. In townships or villages many cases which involve state laws are tried before justices of the peace, and in cities before police magistrates. The courts over which they preside are the lowest courts in the state, and only petty offenses and cases involving small sums of money come before them. The county and municipal courts—the next in

rank—try more serious cases and hear appeals from the lowest courts. In many states circuit, or district, courts stand next above the county or municipal courts. A circuit, or district, usually contains several counties, and the judges, in

A TRIAL

In the background at the left is the jury, the bailiff standing by the door; just to the right, standing, is an attorney who is questioning the man seated in the witness stand; directly in front of the judge, who is seated behind the desk, are the court reporters; the defendant with her attorneys is at the table just beyond the railing which separates the participants from the spectators.

order to make it more convenient for those who have business with the court, travel or make a circuit over their district instead of holding court only in one place. Most of the business of circuit courts consists of cases which have been appealed from the lower courts. The highest state court is usually called the supreme court or the court of appeals.¹ In all cases

¹Five states have courts superior to the so-called supreme court.

which do not involve the constitution or laws of the United States its decisions are final. In the latter instances appeals may be taken to the federal courts.

Tenure of judges. In most states judges are elected by the voters for terms which range from two to twenty-one years. They may be removed for misconduct by impeachment, or trial, by the state legislature. In a few states they may also be removed from office by the use of the recall by the voters.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why is it necessary to have a jury in some trials and not in others? Why is a jury necessary in any trial?

2. What is a grand jury? a petit jury? How are jurors obtained? Why are they called jurors? Do women serve as jurors in your state?

3. Give an example of a case in your state which would be tried before a justice of the peace or a police magistrate; a state district court; the state supreme court (ask a lawyer).

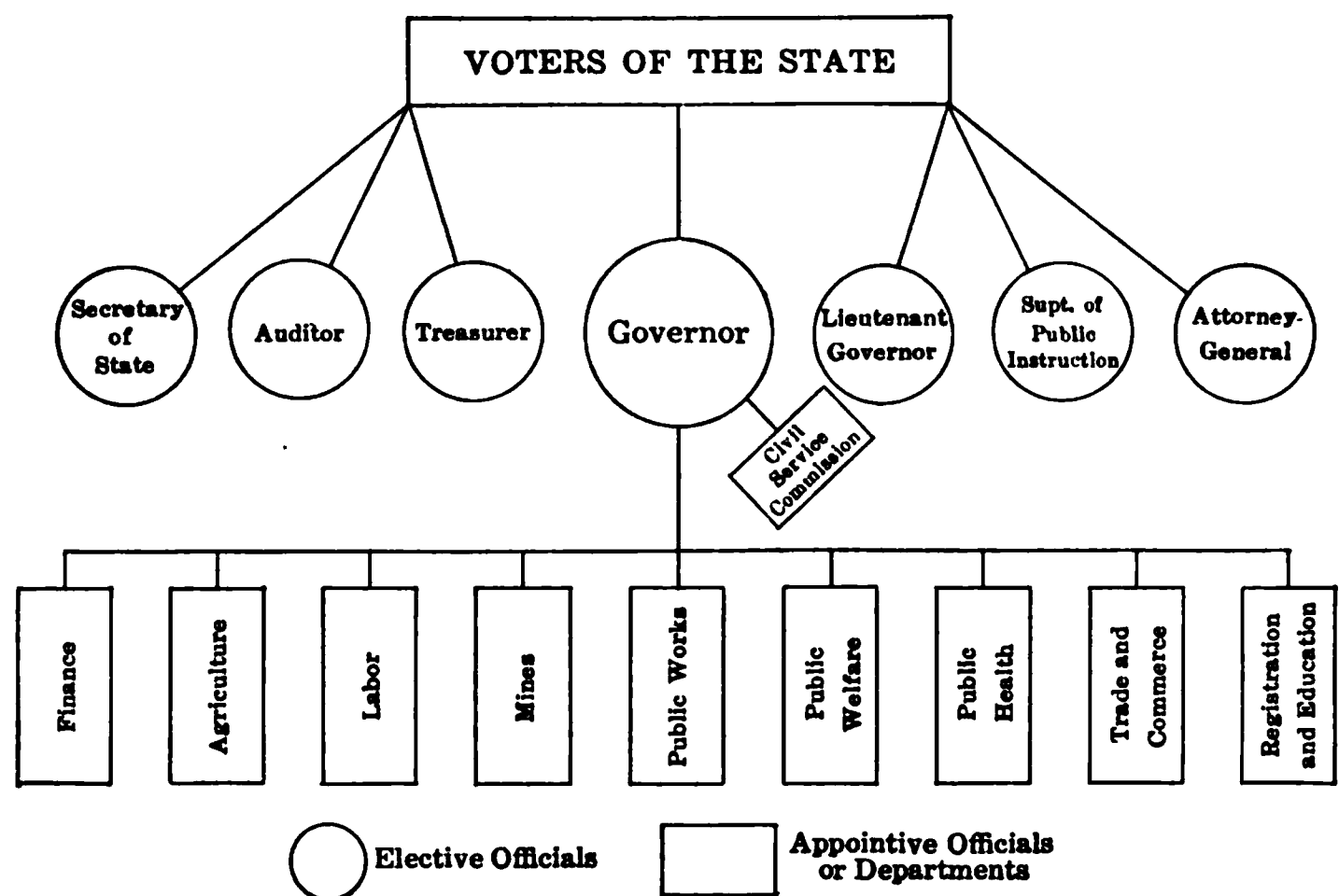
4. Should judges be subject to recall by the voters? Give reasons.

5. Stage a mock trial (see G. A. McPheters, G. J. A. Cleveland, and S. W. Jones, *Citizenship Dramatized*, pp. 13-41).

SECTION VI. TENDENCIES IN STATE GOVERNMENT

Irresponsibility in state governments. The difficulty in fixing responsibility which we noticed in the county and in the mayor-council form of city government is equally marked in many state governments. The governor, for instance, although the chief executive officer of the state, has little or no authority over many of the other executive officers. Like him they are elected by the voters, and if they wish, they can snap their fingers at his suggestions or commands. In most of the states even such minor officials as mayors and sheriffs are practically independent of his authority. Sheriffs may fail to protect prisoners from mobs, and mayors may refuse to enforce state laws, and the governor, although charged

with the duty of seeing that the laws of the state are obeyed, may be helpless. As one writer puts it, "A governor is the captain of a Ship of State which is navigated by a crew that he does not select, and over which he has few powers of command."¹ Under such circumstances responsibility cannot be fixed, and the public welfare suffers accordingly.



THE ILLINOIS ADMINISTRATIVE PLAN

As ordinarily organized, the different state administrative officers, while subject in theory to the governor's orders, are in practice independent of his authority. In the Illinois plan, however, many of them are appointed and removed by him. Thus the governor is largely responsible for the management of the affairs of the state. What changes would place complete executive responsibility on his shoulders ?

The Illinois plan. Illinois has been a pioneer in bettering this condition. A few years ago the legislature passed an act which centralized more than one hundred and twenty-five separate agencies of the state in nine departments. The head of each department is appointed by the governor; as a body the department heads form a cabinet to inform and

¹F. A. Magruder, American Government in 1921, p. 269.

advise him concerning the needs of the state. Each man has power over everything in his department; he is responsible to the governor and to him alone for the conduct of its business. "He is supreme," says Governor Lowden, "and therefore if I ask him why this has been done, or why the other thing has not been done, he cannot say that it is because he has no power, for he does have power, and therefore must take responsibility."¹

The new plan seems to have proved very successful: taxes have been lowered, service has been bettered, and responsibility has been fixed. Owing to limitations in the Illinois constitution it has been impossible to apply the system to all state matters, but the people seem so well satisfied with the change that it will probably be only a matter of time until the constitutional obstacles will be taken away. Since Illinois established this plan Idaho and Nebraska have successfully introduced it, and a number of other states are also seriously considering it.

While the Illinois plan has not remedied all the defects in state government, it has noticeably lessened them. But here too, as in all other devices, machinery alone cannot bring efficient government. That result can be obtained only by the patient, watchful, and intelligent effort and coöperation of all worthy citizens; eternal vigilance is the safeguard not only of liberty but of good government as well.

Summary. Each state in the Union has its own government and controls its own local affairs under the limitations of the national and state constitutions. While there are variations in details, the governmental machinery of the different states is much alike: each has a legislature of two houses to make the laws, a governor and various executive officers to enforce the laws, and a system of courts to interpret and apply the laws. A reduction in the number of elective state officers and a placing of greater authority in the hands of the governor seem to be the two chief reforms

¹ *American Review of Reviews* (March, 1920), Vol. LXI, p. 299.

needed in state government. But no changes in political machinery, however great, can take the place of a wide-awake public opinion. Important as such reforms may be, this alone is absolutely essential to good government.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a drawing or diagram which will show the different parts of your state government and their relation to one another.
2. Does your state have a flag? Is it ever used? Have you ever seen it? (See "Our State Flags," in *National Geographic Magazine* (October, 1917), Vol. XXXII, pp. 323-341.)
3. How does your state compare in age, area, and population with other states in the Union? (See Appendix B.)
4. Make a list of the various ways the state government serves your community. What service is the most important? Give reasons.
5. What is the manager form of state government? Would it be a good thing for your state? Give reasons.
6. Point out advantages and disadvantages in the Illinois plan of cabinet government.
7. How does your state secure money to meet its expenses?
8. What can boys and girls do to better state government?

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that all state offices except those of the governor, lieutenant governor, and members of the legislature should be filled by appointment by the governor, subject to the approval of the state senate.

Resolved, that the state legislature should consist of a single chamber.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

Why my Club has a Constitution
What the Motto of our State Means
A Day in the Police Court
Episodes in the Early History of our State
Our State Song
The Flag of our State

READINGS FOR PUPILS

***Lessons in Community and National Life:**

- B-18: BRAMHALL, F. D. "How State Laws are Made and Enforced."
CHURCHILL, WINSTON. Coniston (fiction).
CHURCHILL, WINSTON. Mr. Crewe's Career (fiction).
FORMAN, S. E. The American Democracy, pp. 54-60, 153-156, 162-179.
KAYE, PERCY L. Readings in Civil Government, pp. 261-295, 311-334.
WELLMAN, F. L. A Day in Court.

READINGS FOR TEACHERS

- BEARD, CHARLES A. American Government and Politics.
BRYCE, JAMES. Modern Democracies, Vol. II, pp. 77-93.
FINLEY, JOHN H., and SANDERSON, JOHN F. American Executive and Executive Methods.
HOLCOMB, A. N. State Government in the United States.
MCPhETERS, G. A., CLEAVELAND, G. J. A., and JONES, S. W. Citizenship Dramatized. pp. 76-123.
REINSCH, PAUL S. American Legislatures and Legislative Methods.
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YOUNG, JAMES T. The New American Government and its Work, pp. 299-339.

CHAPTER XIX

THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT

Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable.

DANIEL WEBSTER

Government of the people, by the people, and for the people.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

SECTION I. THE UNION AND THE CONSTITUTION

Independence. Before the Revolutionary War the thirteen original colonies were not united: each had its own government, and each acted in governmental matters with little regard to its neighbors. The quarrel with the mother country, however, caused the colonies to join forces, and after a long struggle they won their independence. But with independence gained, old-time rivalries and jealousies revived, and it seemed for a while as if the union brought about by the war would end in disorder and strife.

The Articles of Confederation. While the war was still going on, the thirteen states had formed a league with one another known as the Articles of Confederation, but the government they set up—the Confederation Congress—soon became an object of contempt both at home and abroad. It could not enforce treaties it had made with foreign governments; it could not preserve order within the country; it could not meet its running expenses, to say nothing of paying the debt which it owed to foreign creditors and to its own citizens. It was even unable to protect itself from violence and indignity; on one occasion a band of drunken soldiers, angry at not receiving pay long due them, pushed their way into the hall where Congress was sitting and forced the members to flee for their very lives.

The states, meantime, not only gave little attention to congressional requests or recommendations but quarreled among themselves over commerce, tariffs, and boundaries. New York taxed butter and eggs brought into the state from New Jersey; New Jersey retaliated by taxing the New York lighthouse on Sandy Hook. Maryland and Virginia quarreled over the navigation of Chesapeake Bay and the Potomac. South Carolina and Georgia were at swords' points over the control of the Savannah. New York and Connecticut actually fought for the possession of Vermont; while Vermont, denying that either state had any authority over her, took up arms to defend her soil from invaders. Conditions like these gradually brought home to thoughtful Americans the need for a better union and a stronger government if the country was to be saved from disaster.

Constitutional Convention (1787). At this time of crisis—when it was uncertain whether we were to remain one nation or become thirteen—the Constitutional Convention met in Philadelphia. Composed of the ablest and most distinguished men in the country,—Washington, Madison, Hamilton, and Franklin were among its members,—it aroused the hope and confidence of the better class of people from the time its sessions began. Day after day and month after month, during the hot summer of 1787, it worked earnestly to draw up a plan for “a more perfect union,” and in spite of serious disagreements and obstacles, by concessions here and compromises there it at last completed its task and submitted its work to the people. After a hard contest the Constitution was ratified, or accepted, by all the states and became henceforth “the supreme law of the land.”

*The east room of Independence Hall is the most historic spot in America. Here in May, 1775, the Second Continental Congress assembled; here, a month later, George Washington was appointed commander in chief of the American forces; here, on July 4, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was signed; and here, during the summer of 1787, the Constitution of the United States was drafted. Various historic relics, including the famous Liberty Bell, are now kept in the building.

HALL *

⌘ Lwing Caloway

The greatness of the Constitution. The English statesman Gladstone declared the Constitution "the greatest work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man."¹

By it, for the first time in history, there was established on a large scale that system of government known as federalism. Never before had any people set up over themselves by their own action a national government which derived all its powers from the consent of the governed. In these two respects—the federal system and democratic foundation—the Constitution of the United States was unique. For over a hundred and thirty years it has served us so well that it is not only the object of our own love and devotion but has been copied with modifications by many foreign lands.

CARPENTERS' HALL, PHILADELPHIA

In this hall the First Continental Congress met in 1774, and from 1791 to 1797 the building served as the home of the First United States Bank. With the exception of Independence Hall, probably no structure in America has a greater claim to fame.

The federal system. The plan of government provided by the Constitution, as stated above, is the federal system. Under it, as established in the United States, the people have set over themselves two governments—the national and the state—to each of which they have given certain powers and owe certain obligations. Each of these governments has authority over the matters which are intrusted to its charge; in its exercise of these powers the other government has no right to interfere.

¹Many things in the Constitution were based on colonial practices.

Thus the national government has power over the things which affect the welfare of the entire nation, while the state governments have authority over those which are of chief concern to the inhabitants of the individual states. Among the powers given to the national government are the management and control of foreign relations, immigration, army and navy, commerce between the states, the postal service, and the coinage of money. The states, on the other hand, have authority over marriage, divorce, mines, factories, education, and the local governments. In some instances the national and the state governments may exercise the same power; both, for example, may—and in some states do—levy an income tax.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Report on one of the following topics: New England Confederation; Penn's plan of union; Albany plan of union. How did each contribute to the growth of union in America? (Material can be found in any American history.)

2. What were the chief defects of the Articles of Confederation? How were they remedied in the Constitution?

3. What is a federal republic? How does the relation of a state to the United States differ from the relation of a county to a state?

4. Compare the national constitution with the constitution of your state as to (1) length, (2) arrangement, and (3) character of provisions.

5. Is the method of amending the Constitution too difficult? Give reasons for your answer. How can the constitution of Great Britain be amended? of France? of Canada?

6. How did the constitution of the Confederate States of America differ from that of the United States? (See Woodrow Wilson, *Division and Reunion*, pp. 242–244.)

7. What is the most difficult part of the Constitution to amend? (See Article V.)

8. What buildings, other than Independence Hall and Carpenters' Hall, are notable for their associations in American history?

SECTION II. THE NATIONAL LEGISLATURE

Composition of Congress. The Constitution places the chief lawmaking power of the national government in the hands of Congress. Congress is composed of two Houses—the Senate and the House of Representatives, both elected by the people. The Senate, or Upper House, consists of ninety-six senators—two from each state; in it the states have equal power. The House of Representatives, or Lower House, consists of four hundred and thirty-five members; in it the states are represented according to population. Thus the sparsely settled state of Nevada has as much power in the Senate as the great state of New York, with a population over one hundred times as great, but it has only one member in the House of Representatives, while New York has forty-three.

This difference in representation in the Senate and the House grew out of a serious dispute in the Constitutional Convention. Fearing the power of the large states, the small states, like Delaware and New Jersey, refused to support a new constitution unless they were given as much power in the new government as their large neighbors. After a sharp struggle a compromise was adopted, by which equal representation was provided in the Senate and representation according to population was established in the House. Thus the Senate may be said to represent the states, and the House of Representatives the nation.

Congressional sessions. The life, or duration, of any one Congress is limited to two years. Its term begins at noon on March 4 of the odd-numbered years. Unless it is previously called in special session by the president, however, its first session—the “long” session—does not begin until the first Monday in the following December. This session usually continues until summer or fall, but it may last until it is time for the “short” session to begin. The “short” session opens on the first Monday in December of the

even-numbered years; it must end by noon on the fourth day of the following March. If important business is unfinished at that time, it is customary to turn the clock back.

Congressional organization. Each House determines its own rules, is judge of the election and qualifications of its own members, and, with one exception, elects its own officers. This one exception is the presiding officer of the Senate, the vice president of the United States; even in this instance, however, the Senate elects from its own membership a president *pro tem* to preside when the vice president is absent. The presiding officer in the House is called the Speaker. He is elected by vote of the members and always belongs to the majority party; that is, to the party which controls more than half the votes.

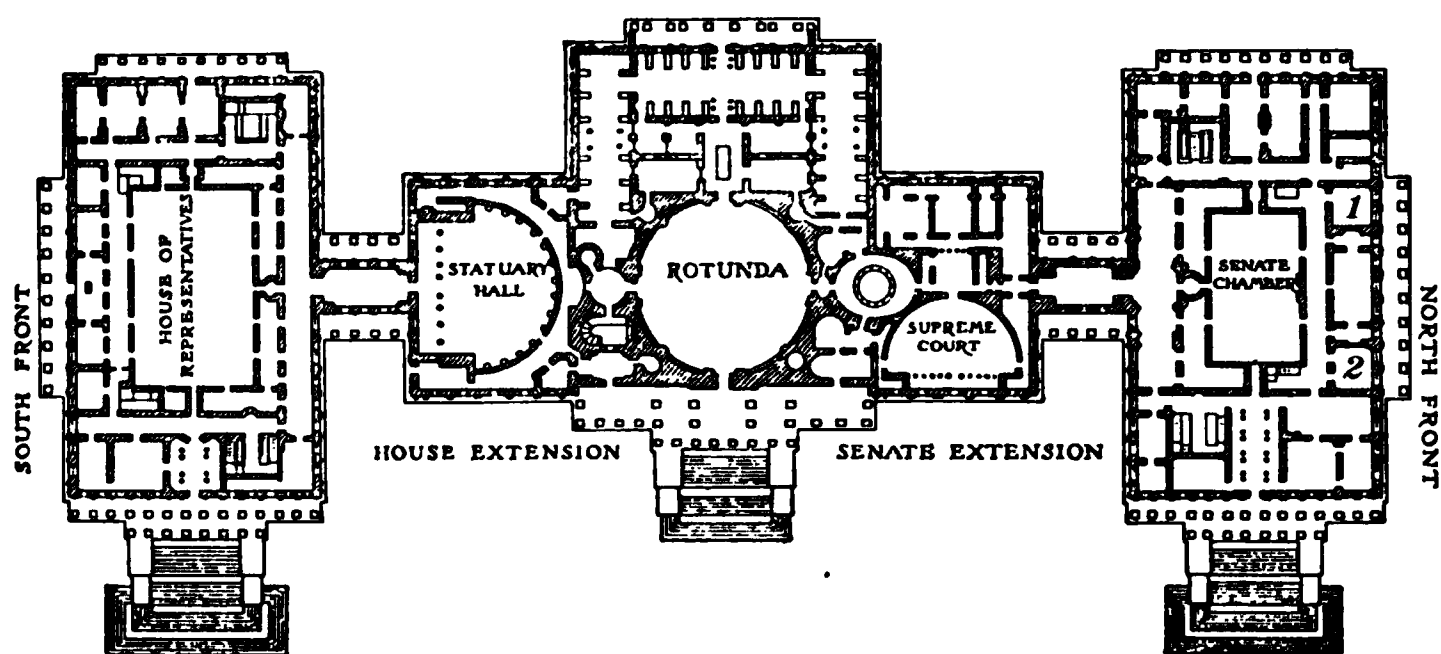
The Speaker of the House and the vice president receive salaries of \$12,000 a year. Other members of Congress are paid \$7500 a year. In addition, all members are given an allowance for traveling expenses, stationery, and clerical help.

How laws are made. Laws are made in practically the same fashion as in the state legislatures. All bills are referred to appropriate committees, and are there studied, ignored, or amended. Occasionally they are reported out of committee in their original form. Before they become laws they must pass each House by three "readings," be signed by the president, or be passed by a two-thirds vote over his veto.

If the president does not act upon a bill within ten days, not counting Sundays, it becomes law without his signature, provided it has been sent to him not less than ten days, excluding Sundays, before the end of the session; in the latter case it does not become law unless he signs it—failure to sign it under such circumstances constitutes what is called the "pocket veto."

Each House must keep a journal of its proceedings, in which, when one fifth of the members demand it, the "yeas" and "nays," or the votes, of the members on any measure must be recorded. The *Congressional Record*, published

daily when Congress is in session, contains the speeches and votes of congressmen and, occasionally, brief reports of government officials and boards. As a rule, the long addresses which appear in the *Record* are never given in Congress, but are published—usually for political purposes—under the “leave-to-print” rule. The *Record* is a valuable channel for finding out the attitude of members of Congress upon the questions of the day. The *Searchlight*, a monthly



FLOOR PLAN OF THE NATIONAL CAPITOL

The Capitol, which is over 750 feet in length and 350 feet in width, consists of a central building (the oldest part of the structure) and two wings. Figure 1 designates the room of the president, which is ordinarily used only for the signing of bills at the close of the legislative session; figure 2 marks the vice president's room.

bulletin privately published, is also a useful agency for revealing the votes and methods of our national legislators.

Committees. As in the state legislatures, the business of each House is carried on largely by standing committees, each of which is usually composed of from three to twenty members. Committees are even more necessary in Congress than in the state legislatures because of the enormous number of bills which are introduced; in one session of the Sixty-seventh Congress (1921-1923), for example, over ten thousand bills were introduced. Each House has between thirty and sixty standing committees; senators and representatives

are usually members of several committees. A majority of the members of each committee belong to the political party which has a majority in the House or in the Senate, as the case may be, although the minority party is always represented. Chairmanships are usually given to the members of the majority party who have served longest in Congress.

The census and representation. In order to give each state its rightful number of representatives it is necessary, since population changes constantly, to take a census of the United States from time to time. Such a census has been taken every ten years, beginning with 1790. In addition to counting the people, the Census Bureau collects valuable information about agriculture, mining, manufactures, commerce, wealth, and occupations. After every census Congress fixes by law the number of representatives in Congress; this number is divided among the various states according to their respective populations. The state legislatures then divide their states into as many congressional districts as they have representatives. Occasionally a state is not redistricted when it secures an additional representative; in such cases the new congressman is elected by the voters of the entire state and is known as the representative at large.

Gerrymandering. Although districts are supposed to be as compact and as nearly equal in population as possible, the political party in control of the state legislature which lays them out usually arranges their boundaries so as to secure for itself as many representatives as possible. By disregarding compactness of area and equality in population, it is easy to group political opponents in a few districts and to keep a small though safe majority of supporters in the others, and thus secure for the party an unfair proportion of the seats in Congress.

This practice is called "gerrymandering," after Elbridge Gerry, governor of Massachusetts when the name for this device but not the device itself was first used. In Mississippi a narrow "shoestring" district, extending over two hundred

miles along the river from the northern limit of the state to the southern, was for years one of the most famous examples of gerrymandering in this country. The gerrymander is used also in dividing a state into legislative districts and in organizing a city into wards. It is a practice introduced and continued by unscrupulous politicians for the purpose of defeating the will of the people.

Special powers and practices of the House. All bills for the raising of taxes must originate in the House of Representatives. The House has also the sole right of impeachment, or of charging civil officers of the government with "treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors." Owing to its large membership it must limit debate much more than does the Senate. No member of the House may speak on a measure for more than one hour except by unanimous consent, and speeches are usually much shorter than this.

Powers and practices of the Senate. In addition to legislative authority, the Senate has judicial and executive powers. It serves as a court in cases of impeachment; it shares executive authority with the president by passing on most of his appointments; it has also an important part in the making of treaties, for every treaty must be ratified by a two-thirds vote of the Senate before it goes into effect.

Until 1917 a senator could speak on a measure as long as he pleased. While this right of unlimited debate secured a more thorough discussion of important measures than is possible in the House, it led at times to the serious abuse called filibustering. By this practice a small group of senators opposed to a bill could kill it, toward the end of a session, by talking it to death; on one occasion, for example, a certain senator talked for seventeen hours against a measure he disliked. In this way a few senators were able to defeat measures which were desired by an overwhelming majority of the Senate. In 1917 a filibuster against what was known as the armed-merchantman bill so aroused the country that at its next session the Senate changed its rules, and today, when-

ever it desires to do so, it may limit each senator to one hour's debate upon the measure which is then before the Senate.

Election and terms of senators. Senators are now chosen by direct election by the voters in their states. They serve for terms of six years. In order to have an experienced body in the government at all times, and to prevent hasty action by legislators,—such as might follow an election,—the framers of the Constitution provided that only one third of the Senate should be chosen at any one time. As a result, two thirds of the senators have always had from two to four years' experience; in fact, since the members are frequently reëlected, the Senate usually contains men of much longer experience than four years. Owing to its smaller size, its greater powers, its higher age qualifications, and the longer terms and wider legislative experience of its members, it is a more dignified and conservative body than is the House of Representatives.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is the number of the present Congress? Is it in session now? If so, is it holding its "long," its "short," or its special session?

2. In what ways do the Senate and House of Representatives differ?

3. How many representatives has your state? Did the number change as a result of the census of 1920? (See Appendix B.) In what congressional district do you live?

4. What is the chief evil of the gerrymander? of the filibuster? Do you see any advantages in the filibuster? Explain.

5. What advantages would be gained by abolishing the Senate and the House of Representatives and establishing in their stead a legislative commission of twelve, to be elected by popular vote from the country as a whole? What disadvantages?

6. It has been urged that a newly elected Congress should hold its first session in the December next after the November election. What would be necessary to bring about this change? What advantages would there be in it?

SECTION III. THE NATIONAL EXECUTIVE

Presidential terms. The Constitution places the law-enforcing powers of the national government in the hands of the president. His term of office is four years, but he may be reëlected as often as the people wish. Ever since Washington declined a third election, however, no man has been chosen for more than two terms: the only two who tried for a third term—Grant and Roosevelt—were defeated. Some people are opposed to the “third-term tradition” because it limits the country to eight years of service by a worthy executive; on the other hand, many insist that unlimited elections of the same candidate, especially in successive terms, would greatly increase the danger of machine politics and corrupt government.

Presidential elections. The president and vice president are elected by indirect popular vote. The men who drew up the Constitution did not believe that the people were capable of electing such important officers. Accordingly, they provided for the selection of electors, who were to choose the president, by the various states in whatever manner the state legislatures should direct. Each state was allowed as many electors as it had senators and representatives; these electors were to vote for the men who, in their opinion, would make the best president and vice president. It was in this way that George Washington was chosen president of the United States.

At first, the members of the Electoral College, as the body of electors is called, were appointed by the state legislatures, but this practice soon gave way to their election by the people. Before this change took place, the rise of political parties had quickly ended the idea that the electors were to vote according to their own judgment. Since 1800, in fact, the electors, with very few exceptions, have always cast their ballots for the official candidates of their parties, regardless of any private opinion they might hold about the matter.

Interesting exceptions to this practice occurred in 1821, 1873, and 1913. In 1821, a Republican elector voted for John Quincy Adams rather than for Monroe, the candidate of his party, because he distrusted Monroe; in 1873, most of the Liberal Republican electors did not vote for Greeley, the party candidate, because Greeley had died the previous December; in 1913, the Republican electors voted for Butler for vice president, Sherman, the official candidate, having died since the November election.

After a vigorous campaign lasting for several months the presidential election takes place early in November in the years divisible by four. The electors who are chosen by the people at this time meet in their state capitals the following January and cast their ballots for president and vice president. This is the official election, but since the electors so unfailingly vote for the party candidates, the result of the contest is usually known the morning after the November election. Certificates of the result of the electoral vote in each state are sent to Washington, where they are counted early in February at a joint session of the two Houses.

Elections by Congress. In order to be elected, a candidate for the presidency must receive a majority of the electoral votes. If no one receives a majority, the election is decided by the House of Representatives. In such case the House must elect one of the three leading candidates. When voting for this purpose, the congressional delegation from each state has one vote, and a candidate to be victorious must receive the votes of a majority of the states.

On two occasions presidential elections have been decided by the House. In 1801, when the electoral vote was a tie between Jefferson and Burr, the House balloted thirty-five times before Jefferson received a majority. In 1825 the electoral vote was divided among four candidates, none having a majority; in this instance the House after a bitter fight elected John Quincy Adams, instead of Andrew Jackson, the leading candidate.

If no candidate for the vice presidency receives a majority of the electoral votes, the office is filled by the Senate. It must choose between the two leading candidates. In all our history it has elected only one vice president; this was in 1837, when it chose Richard M. Johnson, vice-presidential nominee on the ticket with Martin Van Buren, the man who won the presidency the preceding fall.

The value of the Electoral College. Many people think the Electoral College serves no useful purpose, but is a source of needless expense and an obstacle to democracy. In every state electors are now chosen as a body; a small majority, or plurality, in one state can therefore outweigh a large majority in another. For example, a candidate may carry New York by a majority of 1000 votes; in this case he will receive 45 electoral votes. At the same time his opponent may carry Pennsylvania by a majority of 100,000 votes and in consequence receive 38 electoral votes. When this happens the ballots of 1000 people count for more than do those of 100,000. A candidate may thus secure a majority of the electoral votes and the presidency and, at the same time, have fewer popular votes than his rival; this actually happened in the election of Hayes, in 1876, and of Harrison, in 1888. Usually, however, a large popular majority in one state for one party will be balanced by an equally large majority in another state for the opposing party. Moreover, some writers think that sparsely settled regions like Nevada should have greater influence in national affairs than their mere population warrants; the Electoral College helps to give them this increased weight.

Vacancies in the presidency. If the president dies, resigns, is removed, or is unable to perform the duties of his office, he is succeeded by the vice president. If the vice president also dies or cannot carry on the duties of the office, the members of the cabinet succeed to the presidency in the following order: Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General,

Secretary of the Navy, Secretary of the Interior. Vacancies have occurred five times in our history; in each case they were caused by the death of the president. The long illness of Garfield in 1881 and of Wilson in 1919-1921 raised important questions as to the meaning of the constitutional provision concerning "inability" and when it should operate, but down to the present time Congress has not legislated on the matter.

The president's income. The salary of the president is \$75,000 a year. He also receives the White House as a residence and is allowed \$25,000 annually for traveling-expenses; additional sums are granted him for official entertainments, clerical help, house servants, and automobiles. These expenses total about \$200,000 yearly. The president's income is small compared with that of European rulers or of industrial and professional leaders in our own country.

Powers of the president. The president is probably the most powerful ruler in the world. As an executive he sees that the laws are enforced; as a lawmaker he recommends legislation to Congress, summons it to meet in special session, and, if he thinks necessary, vetoes its measures; as a judicial officer he may pardon certain offenses against the United States.

Executive powers. The chief duty of the president is to see that the laws of the United States are obeyed. In order that he may have power to enforce them, as well as to enable him to protect the country against foreign foes, the Constitution makes him commander in chief of the army and navy, and of the state militia when it is called into the national service. Under this authority Washington used the militia to put down the Whisky Rebellion in 1794 and Lincoln called out the armed forces of the nation to save the Union at the beginning of the Civil War. In time of war the chief executive may take personal command of the nation's military forces, but no president has yet done so. Although he cannot declare war on a foreign country, he

can make a conflict practically unavoidable by his conduct of foreign relations or by his orders to the army or navy. In 1846, for example, President Polk brought about war by ordering General Taylor to occupy territory then in dispute between the United States and Mexico.

The president has the sole power to negotiate treaties, although they must be ratified by a two-thirds vote of the Senate before they become binding; even after a treaty has been ratified he can prevent its going into effect by refusing to send it to the other country. He alone can receive foreign ministers and ambassadors, and all our foreign relations must be carried on through him or his appointee, the Secretary of State. He fills thousands of positions by appointment, subject to the approval of the Senate; and he can remove any official whom he has appointed, except judges of the federal courts, with or without cause, and without asking the consent of the Senate or any other authority.

Legislative powers. When Congress assembles, it is the duty of the president to give it information about conditions in the country, governmental affairs, and matters which in his opinion call for legislative action. The first two presidents—Washington and Adams—rode to the halls of Congress in a coach drawn by six horses and delivered their messages in person. But Jefferson, the third president, was a poor speaker though an effective writer, and instead of following the custom of his predecessors, he communicated with Congress in writing. This plan was followed by all the presidents until 1913, when Wilson revived the original practice.

Since the president's message is published in full in the newspapers and attracts the attention of the entire country, it is a powerful means of influencing public opinion. His power to call special sessions of the national legislature also gives him an opportunity to urge his policies before the country and to bring public pressure on Congress to enact them into law. If he is an able and aggressive leader, therefore,

THE PRESIDENT'S ENGAGEMENTS

Wednesday, June 29, 1921

10:15 a.m. Senator Curtis, Rep. Sweet & Rep. Strong
10:25 a.m. Senator Elkins
10:30 a.m. Senator Shields
10:40 a.m. Senator Sterling
10:50 a.m. Rep. Ogden, Ky.
11:00 a.m. Rep. Wurzbach, Texas
11:10 a.m. Rep. Free, Calif.
11:20 a.m. Mr. Fred Starek
11:30 a.m. Rep. Burtness and Com., 15 mins.
11:50 a.m. Dr. J. Wesley Hill, 10 mins.
12:00 noon Former Secretary Redfield
12:15 p.m. R. D. Redfern, Sec'y Fitchburg Chamber of Com.
12:30 p.m. Mr. Gabrielle Nova Doughian, V.P. Armenian
National Delegation
12:45 p.m. Com. Richmond Club Printing House Craftsman,
S. B. Kreck
Respects:- Mr. John Hays Hammond
Rep. Butler and 20 boys Chester Y.M.C.A.
Rep. Jones, Pa.,
(30)
2:00 p.m. INTERIOR with
3:00 p.m. The . Emery
and Committee American Legion
5:30 p.m. Mr. Alfred P. Thom
10:30 p.m. Flower Carnival - Dean Estate - Junior Unit,
Ga. Division Roosevelt Memorial Assn.

A DAY WITH THE PRESIDENT

The president of the United States is one of the busiest men in the world, yet he often finds time to greet high-school boys and girls who come to see him.

the president can usually get the measures he favors through Congress, especially if the majority are members of his own party. By using his influence, his power of appointment, or, if necessary, the veto, he can as a rule prevent measures he disapproves from becoming law, for it has proved very difficult to muster the two-thirds vote in each House of Congress which is necessary in order to pass a bill over his objections.

The cabinet. It is impossible, of course, for the president to direct the army and navy, negotiate treaties, manage foreign relations, enforce the laws of the nation, bring measures to the attention of Congress, and carry on the other duties of his office without assistance. From the first, the details of these activities have been managed largely by various executive departments. Each department has at its head an official, usually called a secretary, who is appointed by the president and who is responsible to him alone. Taken as a body, these department heads make up the cabinet. The president usually calls the cabinet together for advice or consultation twice a week, but he is no way bound to follow its suggestions. He also consults each member individually about the affairs of his department.

There are now ten executive departments in the national government: State, Treasury, War, Justice, Post Office, Navy, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. Each of these departments is divided into bureaus, and each bureau, as a rule, into divisions. The activities of the various federal agencies and boards require the services of hundreds of thousands of men and women. In the post office alone there are more than three hundred thousand people employed.

*The first two presidents were in the habit of addressing Congress in person. The third president, Jefferson, who felt that the custom aped the manners of monarchy and who was, besides, a poor speaker, introduced the practice of sending his messages to Congress, where they were read more or less perfunctorily by a clerk. President Wilson revived the original custom and it has been continued by President Harding. To hear the message, the two Houses meet in the Hall of Representatives, the presiding officers of the two bodies occupying the chairs behind the Speaker's desk.

THE PRESIDENT ADDRESSING CONGRESS*

The *Secretary of State* keeps the original copies of laws and treaties, receives the ratifications of constitutional amendments, countersigns the proclamations of the president, is custodian of the great seal of the United States, and communicates with the state governments on all official

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THE PRESIDENT AND HIS CABINET

The meetings of the cabinet are very informal; no minutes are kept and as a rule no vote is taken. Although the president usually consults the executive heads on important public questions and policies, he is under no obligation to follow their advice. In addition to the ten secretaries, President Harding included in his cabinet Vice-President Coolidge, who is seated at the far end of the table.

matters. In addition to these domestic duties, he has charge of foreign affairs, subject, of course, to the president's orders. He directs the work of American consuls, ministers, and ambassadors, and it is through him that the president receives foreign representatives and negotiates treaties. Among the famous men who have served as Secretary of State are Jefferson, Clay, Webster, Calhoun, Seward, Blaine, and Hay.

The *Secretary of the Treasury* has general charge of the finances of the government. Through his subordinates he sees that the public revenues are collected, serves as custodian of the national funds, pays government bills, supervises the coining and printing of money, and oversees the national banks. In addition to its financial activities, the Treasury Department includes the secret service, the life-saving

UNITED STATES TREASURY BUILDING

The financial operations of the United States center in this imposing building. Hundreds of millions of dollars in coin and bullion are stored in its vaults.

service, the public-health service, and the supervision of the erection of government buildings. Hamilton, Gallatin, and Chase proved themselves especially competent in this office.

The budget system lately established is an improvement in this department. The president now sends Congress annually a summary of the past year's income and expenditures and an estimate of the same items for the coming year.

The *Secretary of War* has general direction of the military affairs of the nation. He is assisted by a General Staff, whose work consists chiefly in giving advice on the needs of the army and in suggesting plans for the national defense. He has also general supervision of the United States military

Academy at West Point, where officers for the army are trained. In addition to military matters, the War Department controls all navigable waterways, directs river and harbor improvements, constructs coast defenses, has charge of the Panama Canal Zone, and oversees the government of Porto Rico and the Philippines.

The *Attorney-General*, the head of the Department of Justice, is the chief legal adviser of the president and of the other members of the cabinet. He or his assistants represent the government in all suits to which it is a party and prosecute persons or corporations accused of violating national laws. The Attorney-General also supervises federal prisons and examines applications for pardons.

The *Postmaster-General* has charge of the Post-Office Department (its chief activities were described in a previous chapter, p. 390). The Postmaster-General and the Secretary of the Treasury are the only members of the cabinet who are independent of the president in certain matters; on these they are required by law to report to Congress. But since they may be dismissed by the president at any time, they are, for all practical purposes, as much under his authority as are the other members of the cabinet.

The *Secretary of the Navy* has general supervision over the navy. He is assisted by a General Board, whose relations to the navy are similar to those which the General Staff bears to the army. The navy in 1920 contained over seven hundred vessels and numbered about two hundred thousand officers and men. The United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, for the training of officers of the navy, is under the direction of the secretary of the department.

The *Secretary of the Interior* directs activities which probably affect more people than does any other department in the government except the Post Office. His department has charge of mines, patents, education, public lands, pensions, reclamation, the geological survey, and the Indians. The public lands—lands owned by the government—amount to

over seven hundred million acres, not counting those in Alaska, and the management of these lands alone is a large undertaking. Equally extensive is the handling of the pensions paid to men who have fought in the various wars of the United States, or to their widows and children; these payments in 1920 totaled more than \$210,000,000. The Patent

BROOKLYN NAVY YARD

A navy yard is a water-front supplied with warehouses, wharves, piers, and dry docks which are used by the government for constructing and repairing warships and for storing naval supplies. The Brooklyn Navy Yard is the most important of the nine yards in the United States. The superdreadnaught in the center is the electrically driven *Tennessee*.

Office also does an enormous business. A patent gives an inventor exclusive control over his invention for seventeen years. To avoid granting a patent for an article already patented, every device submitted is carefully examined. Although many fail to pass this examination, the number of those which succeed is very large; in 1919 almost forty thousand patents were granted, and the number that year was the lowest since

1913. The Reclamation Bureau directs the irrigation of vast tracts of arid land and the drainage of hundreds of thousands of acres of swamp land; it requires the services of many employees and benefits large numbers of people. The educational work of the department (which is explained on page 66) also touches hundreds of thousands of Americans every year.

The *Secretary of Agriculture* is in charge of a department which is of great service to the farmers of the country. It investigates the diseases of plants and animals, studies problems of soil, maintains agricultural experiment stations, conducts explorations in other lands for seeds and plants which can be grown in this country, and by its pamphlets, lecturers, and demonstration farms spreads its information broadcast. Its fight against harmful insects and fungi has saved the country hundreds of millions of dollars. Through its Weather Bureau it serves commerce as well as agriculture, for its warnings of storms save from destruction every year hundreds of vessels and many lives. Its forest rangers, meat-inspectors, and pure-food experts also give the country invaluable service.

The *Secretary of Commerce* has charge of the census, the inspection of steamboats, the regulation of weights and measures, and the maintenance of lighthouses.

The *Secretary of Labor* sees that the immigration and naturalization laws are enforced, investigates child labor, gathers and publishes statistics on wages and working-conditions in various industries, and with his assistants does everything in his power to promote the welfare of wage-earners.

The civil service. During the fifty years prior to 1883, government positions were usually given to those who had worked in political campaigns for the victorious party; as a rule, little attention was paid to the fitness of the applicant for the office he sought. But in 1883 a law was passed by Congress, establishing a Civil Service Commission and au-

thorizing the president to place certain governmental positions in a classified list. At first only a few thousand offices were put under civil-service regulations, but successive presidents have added to the list until at the present time over three fourths of all government positions are in the classified service. Many of the unclassified offices today consist of the higher positions, where agreement with the party in power is essential for effective government.

All classified positions must be filled from the list of "eligibles" who have successfully passed civil-service examinations. Once in office these appointees cannot be discharged except for cause shown in a public hearing. Clean sweeps, such as were customary under the old spoils system, are now impossible. Efficiency is secured by making all minor employees responsible to the chief of the division in which they are employed; he, in turn, is responsible to one of the assistant secretaries of the department or to the secretary himself. Since the secretary is responsible to the president a high state of centralization and efficiency can thus be secured.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is the greatest obstacle, aside from the difficulty of amending the Constitution, in securing direct popular election of the president?
2. When a presidential election is decided by the House of Representatives, why is the voting done by states?
3. Should a president be limited to two terms? Give reasons for your opinion.
4. Report on one of the following elections: 1800, 1828, 1860, 1876, 1896, 1912, 1920 (consult an American history).
5. How is a president inaugurated? Prepare a report on the inauguration of one of the following: Washington, Jefferson, Jackson, Lincoln, Wilson, Harding. Read before the class extracts from the inaugural addresses.
6. What is the most important power of the president? Does he have too much power? If so, what changes would you suggest?

7. Should members of the cabinet be allowed to speak in Congress? to vote in Congress? If so, why?

8. What executive departments seem to exist chiefly to serve the government? What ones chiefly to serve the people? If a department seems to be primarily for the government, is it at the same time for the people? Explain.

9. Name the present members of the cabinet. What was the occupation of each man before he entered the cabinet? Of what importance are the answers to the preceding question?

10. What is meant by the "spoils system"? How is it harmful to the public welfare? Describe its introduction in Jackson's administration (consult an American history).

11. It has been suggested that a Department of Education should be included in the cabinet. What do you think of the proposal? It has been suggested also that a Department of Health, a Department of Public Welfare, and a Department of Public Works be created. If created, what would probably be the work of such departments?

SECTION IV. THE NATIONAL COURTS

Kinds of federal courts. There are three series of federal courts in the United States—District Courts, Circuit Courts of Appeals, and a Supreme Court. Each of these courts applies and interprets national laws when cases are brought before it. They also pass on the constitutionality of laws; if, in their opinion, a state or national law violates the Constitution, they declare it null and void.

The *District Courts* are the lowest federal courts. Every state constitutes at least one district over which there is a District Court; in some states there are as many as four or five districts. In each district there is a United States attorney, who prosecutes violators of national laws, and a federal marshal, who carries out the orders of the court. The District Courts try civil and criminal cases which arise under national law, such as violations of the revenue laws, pure-food laws, postal laws, and laws against counterfeiting; District Courts do not hear appeals from state courts.

The *Circuit Courts of Appeals* are next in rank in the federal judicial system. There are nine judicial circuits in the United States, over each of which there is a Circuit Court of Appeals. Each of these courts is supervised by one of the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States.

THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES

The Supreme Court, of which former President William H. Taft (seated in the center) is Chief Justice, is the most powerful judicial body in the world. Its decisions in matters which concern the Constitution, the national laws, and treaties are final.

Unlike a District Court, which is usually made up of a single judge, a Circuit Court of Appeals is generally composed of three or four judges. Circuit Courts hear only cases which have been appealed from state or federal District Courts; they were created to relieve the Supreme Court of certain burdens. In some cases their decisions are final; in others an appeal may be taken to the Supreme Court.

The *Supreme Court of the United States* is the most important tribunal in the nation. It is composed of nine judges who are appointed by the president, subject to the approval of the Senate. Like all federal judges they hold office for life or during good behavior and can be removed only by impeachment and conviction. The salary of justices of the Supreme Court is \$14,500; the Chief Justice receives \$15,000. If they have served on the court ten years, they may retire at full pay at the age of seventy. The Supreme Court holds its regular sessions in the Capitol at Washington, from October to May of each year.

The decisions of the court are determined by a majority of the judges sitting, and no less than six of them must be present to hear cases. All cases which affect foreign ambassadors, ministers, and consuls, or which concern controversies between states or between citizens of different states, are decided by it. It also renders the final decision in all appeals which come before it.

The interpretation of the Constitution is the greatest power of the Supreme Court. Its decision is final in all cases which involve the Constitution, the national laws, treaties with other countries, and foreign ministers and ambassadors. It has steadily refused, however, to give an opinion on the constitutionality of any law except when the law in question has been involved in the decision of a particular case which has come before it in its regular work. The impartiality and soundness of its decisions have won it the confidence of Americans and the admiration of foreigners.

Summary. The United States is a federal republic. By the Constitution, matters which are national in character are intrusted to the national government; those which are of local concern are controlled by the state governments; occasionally the same power is exercised by both governments. The lawmaking power of the national government is vested in a Congress of two Houses. In the Senate the states are represented equally; in the House of Representa-

tives they are represented according to population. Laws are made in practically the same manner as in the state legislatures. The enforcement of the national laws is centered in the hands of the president, who is elected by indirect vote of the people. He is assisted by a cabinet of ten members and by hundreds of thousands of subordinates. In addition to his executive powers he has important legislative and judicial authority. National laws are interpreted and applied by a system of federal courts. The Supreme Court of the United States is the highest tribunal in the land; its decisions as to the constitutionality of any law, state or national, are final.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Give an example of a case which would come before a federal District Court; a federal Circuit Court of Appeals; the Supreme Court of the United States (ask a lawyer).

2. Why does the Supreme Court refuse to express an opinion on the constitutionality of a law except in connection with a case which comes before it? (Ask a lawyer.)

3. Make a list of the things the national government does for your community. What is its most important service?

4. Are there any "gerrymanders" in your state or city? (Secure a map showing the districts or wards, and see whether you can find out by examining them and the results of the last election.) Can you tell by the results of a single election? Explain.

5. Describe the government of one of the following regions: Alaska; Porto Rico; Canal Zone; Hawaii; Philippine Islands; Virgin Islands.

6. Report on the history of the Stars and Stripes. See "The Story of the American Flag," *National Geographic Magazine* (October, 1917), Vol. XXXII, pp. 286-303.

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that the Philippine Islands should be given complete and immediate independence.

Resolved, that the Electoral College should be abolished.

Resolved, that a federal Department of Education should be created.

Resolved, that the term of the president should be increased to seven years and that no man should be eligible for reëlection.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

The Work of a Federal Forest Ranger
 What the National Government does in our Community
 The Recreations of the President
 The Duties of the Mistress of the White House
 If I were President
 The Life-Saving Service
 Work of the Secret Service
 How the Government makes Money
 A Visit to a Lighthouse
 Reclaiming Waste Lands
 What the Government does for the Indians
 A Government Demonstration Farm

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CHAPTER XX

POLITICAL PARTIES AND THE BALLOT

The parties were made to serve, not to be served.—ESTHER EVERETT LAPE

The short ballot is the key to the whole problem of the restoration of popular government in this country.—WOODROW WILSON

SECTION I. HISTORICAL SKETCH OF POLITICAL PARTIES

Representative government. In the New England town meeting it is possible for all the voters to come together, discuss questions which concern them, and decide problems as they think best. But people who live scattered over a wide area like Pennsylvania or the United States cannot conveniently meet with one another to talk over their problems; even if they could, their enormous numbers would make it impossible for them to carry on a satisfactory discussion. For these reasons the people in every democratic country in the world have found it necessary to select representatives to make and execute the laws in accordance with their will.

Why we have political parties. Now people seldom think alike on any question which comes before them. This fact makes political parties necessary; for, so long as people disagree on public questions, so long will they need to form parties in order to elect representatives who will put their respective views into effect. No other way has yet been found by which a large country can be ruled by the people; representative government, in short, is of necessity party government.

Importance of political parties. Behind almost every important act or recommendation of government officials there is, then, the influence of political parties.

Theoretically, the president nominates officials with the advice and consent of the Senate; but in actual practice the president does not have a free hand in making nominations. Quite to the contrary: the nominations for most of the offices are made in close consultation with the members of the president's party in the Senate or in the House of Representatives. Theoretically, the president should formally consult with the Senate on the making of treaties; practically, many an important treaty is settled at a dinner table, where the influential party members in the Senate are present. Theoretically, laws are made by the Senate and House of Representatives; practically, they are made by the party in power, under the direction of the party leaders, and in the actual process of lawmaking there are innumerable joint and separate party caucuses.¹

Thus the party controls both the lawmaking and the law-enforcing branches of the government; only in the judicial department is its influence limited.

Origin of American political parties. Even so wise a man as Washington did not realize the necessity and importance of party government. When president, he tried for years to keep both Jefferson and Hamilton in his cabinet long after they had become "like two fighting cocks," as Jefferson put it, because of their differences of opinion on public policies. These differences finally led to the development of the first two political parties in our history; that is, the first since the Constitution went into effect, for the parties of colonial and Revolutionary times lacked the organization usually associated with the term. Of one of these parties, the Federalist, Hamilton became the leader; of the other, the Republican, Jefferson was the acknowledged chief. In spite of having the same name, the Republican party of today does not resemble Jefferson's party and was not an outgrowth from it.

Federalists versus Republicans, 1791-1816. The Federalist party believed in a strong national government; it advocated

¹C. A. Beard, *American Government and Politics*, p. 101. Used by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

a liberal construction of the Constitution; it had little faith in the common people; it favored the financial and commercial classes and from them it drew most of its strength. The Republican party, on the other hand, was the defender of the rights of the states; it was opposed to a strong

national government; it advocated a strict construction of the Constitution; it believed the welfare of the country depended on agriculture rather than on commerce or manufactures; most of its supporters were small farmers and frontiersmen; it had confidence in the people; it stood for liberty.

During the first twelve years under the Constitution (1789-1801), the Federalists controlled the national government. Guided by Hamilton and Washington, who finally became a

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

Federalist, they organized the government, established it on a firm financial basis, and caused it to be respected both at home and abroad. The American people owe much to the Federalist party, but its undemocratic attitude and bitter quarrels within its own ranks made it unpopular and led to its decisive defeat in the election of 1800.

During the next generation the government was in the hands of the Republicans. Now that they were in the saddle they soon gave up many of their earlier ideas about limiting governmental powers. Within ten years they annexed

Louisiana, established an embargo on trade, appropriated money for roads and harbors, and did other things they would have been quick to denounce if done by the Federalists a few years before. The latter, equally inconsistent, adopted many of the narrow ideas formerly held by the Republicans and bitterly opposed their measures. Finally, the unpatriotic attitude of the Federalists during the War of 1812 proved so unpopular that their organization died soon after the conflict ended. The last national election in which they took part was in 1816, and for the next twelve years the Republicans had everything their own way.

The period of personal politics, 1816-1832. Although there was only one party during the period which followed

THOMAS JEFFERSON

the War of 1812, there were numerous controversies between the rival leaders of the day. These controversies were factional quarrels, however, rather than conflicts between organizations representing different political views. The climax in this era of personal politics came in the election of 1824, when, no candidate having received a majority of the electoral vote, John Quincy Adams was chosen president by the House of Representatives over Andrew Jackson, who had received a larger popular and electoral vote. For the next four years the followers of Jackson, believing he had been cheated out of the presidency, waged a continuous

campaign in his behalf. During the struggle, differences which in the beginning had been largely personal came to rest on deeper grounds. The Adams men gradually came to insist on governmental policies very much like those of the old-time Federalists; while the Jackson men increasingly advocated measures which resembled those of the early Republicans.

Whigs versus Democrats, 1832-1854. Out of these contests there slowly developed parties which, although they had new names, corresponded in most of their principles to the parties of Washington's time. By 1832 the Jackson men, dropping the name of "Republican," called themselves Democrats and clung stoutly to most of the ideas of Jefferson; by 1834 the Adams men, also discontinuing the name of "Republican," adopted

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ANDREW JACKSON

Courtesy of Corcoran Gallery of Art.

the title "Whig" and for a generation were the enthusiastic advocates of many of the principles of Alexander Hamilton.

For the next twenty years the Whigs and Democrats were the leading political parties in the United States. During the first part of this period they fought over such questions as banking, the building of roads and canals, and the tariff. The Whigs believed in a national bank; in the building of

highways, canals, and railroads by the national government; and in the levying of high duties on goods brought into the United States from abroad, so as to protect American industries from foreign competition. The Democrats, on the other hand, believed that the national government should not charter a bank; that transportation enterprises should be left to the states; that a low tariff should be enacted; and, above all, that the government should be run by and for the people.

During the latter part of this period slavery became more and more the issue of the day. The refusal of both parties to take a stand against it led in the forties to the formation of minor parties strongly opposed to slavery. A few years later the Whig party "died of an attempt to swallow the fugitive-slave law," and the Democrats, by approving it and the Kansas-Nebraska Act, became badly divided. There now appeared in the political arena a new political organization, founded on the principle of opposition to the spread of slavery.

Democrats versus Republicans since 1854. The new party took the old name "Republican." Led by men like Lincoln, Seward, and Chase, it immediately became a strong rival of the Democrats,—so strong, in fact, that in 1860, aided by a split in the ranks of its opponents, it elected Abraham Lincoln to the presidency.

In the trying times of the next twenty years the chief questions before the country were the conduct of the Civil War, the reconstruction of the Southern states, and the enfranchisement of the negro. While there were differences of opinion in both parties as to what should be done about these problems, the Republicans in general stood for a vigorous prosecution of the war and, when the conflict ended, for a stern policy of control in the Southern states; they also tried to safeguard and control the negro by passing laws for his protection and by giving him the ballot. During the war the Democrats were divided in their attitude: one wing, the "War

Democrats," joined the Republicans in loyally supporting Lincoln in his efforts to maintain the Union; the other wing was lukewarm, sympathetic toward the Confederacy, or actively helpful to the Southern cause. After the war the Democrats urged a lenient policy toward the South and bitterly opposed the giving of the ballot to the negro.

Since 1880 the chief political issues have been the currency, the tariff, the trusts, and relations between capital and labor. With the Spanish-American War came the problem of imperialism,—the control and disposition of the Philippines, Porto Rico, and Guam and the Ladrões,—and in more recent days the World War led to a sharp controversy over the League of Nations. During this period the Republican party has steadily advocated a protective tariff; after

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

The leader of this country during one of the most crucial periods of its existence, Lincoln stands as one of the two greatest characters in American history. He was the first candidate of the Republican party to be elected president. Like him, "Let us have faith that right makes might, and in that faith let us to the end dare to do our duty as we understand it."

some hesitation it came out in favor of the gold standard; it has urged governmental regulation of the trusts; since 1900 it has supported the keeping of the Philippines until

the inhabitants are fit for independence; in 1920 it opposed the League of Nations. The Democratic party, during these years, has favored a tariff for revenue only; in 1896 it upheld the cause of free silver; it has argued for strict governmental control of "big business"; since the Spanish-American War it has advocated the early independence of the Philippines and, in the meantime, the giving of large powers of self-government to the inhabitants. In 1920 it took an emphatic stand in favor of the League of Nations.

Minor parties. In addition to the two great parties which have existed all through our national history, with the exception of the years from 1816 to 1832, there have appeared from time to time minor, or "third party," organizations. The chief reason for their formation has been the failure or the refusal of the great parties to declare their attitude at times on questions of the day.

Thus in 1830, when many people were hostile to secret societies, the first third party, the Antimasons, was formed to oppose the election of Masons to office. Some years later the opponents of slavery, finding that the Whigs and Democrats remained silent on the question, organized themselves into the Liberty party and, later, into the Free Soil party. In the fifties, opposition to immigrants became so great that the American party, pledged to exclude foreigners from office and to lengthen the period for naturalization to twenty-one years, was formed; owing to the custom its members had of replying, "I don't know," when asked about its principles, this organization was dubbed the "Know Nothing" party. In the seventies, foes of the liquor traffic founded the Prohibition party, the longest-lived "third party" in our history.

Other interesting examples of minor parties were the Greenback party, which favored the use of paper money as the national currency; the Populist party, which urged the cause of free silver and direct popular government; and the Socialist parties, which believe that society should own the means of producing and distributing wealth.

Uses of minor parties. What are the services of minor parties? Judging by the past, their chief service seems to be to bring before the country issues which the two leading parties persistently ignore. Their growth in followers has usually forced the great parties, sooner or later, to take a stand on the question at stake or to be destroyed. Thus, before the Civil War, the Free Soil party played a part in the destruction of the Whig organization; forty years later the Greenback and Populist parties forced the currency issue on the Democratic and Republican organizations; and in a somewhat similar way the Socialists have been influential in recent years in causing increasing attention to be paid to industrial and social problems. Nonpartisan organizations have also been able at times to secure the passage of important laws in regard to which no party issue has yet been raised.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Why are political parties necessary in a democracy? What is a democracy? Is the United States a democracy? Explain.
2. If you had been living in Washington's time should you have been a Federalist or a Republican? Why? In Jackson's time should you have been a Whig or a Democrat? Why?
3. What is meant by "loose construction"? by "strict construction"?
4. The Whigs had three candidates run for the presidency in 1836. Can you explain their action?
5. What were the chief issues in the last presidential campaign? State the attitude of the great parties on each of these issues.
6. Does a person who votes the ticket of a "third party" throw his vote away? Explain.

SECTION II. PARTY ORGANIZATION

Government by persons. Every act of the government is the act of some person or group of persons. The national laws are made by a group called Congress; they are enforced

by officers directed by a man called the president or by his assistants; they are interpreted and applied by persons who serve as judges. Although the government is controlled by the Constitution and the laws, it is made up of men and women. In all democratic countries the selection of the officials and the determination of governmental policies are the work of political parties which, of course, are influenced greatly in what they do by political leaders and by the newspapers.

Caucus control of parties. In the days of Washington and Jefferson political parties were controlled by a few people. At that time travel was difficult, the postal service was poor, and news circulated slowly. The majority of people knew little about politics; there was scant reason, in fact, why they should, for most of them were not allowed to vote. Under such circumstances it was only natural that the members of Congress and of state legislatures, finding it convenient to get together and being acquainted with the leading men of the country or the state, should hold caucuses, or informal gatherings (the Republicans in one and the Federalists in another), to select candidates for the different offices. In such caucuses all the early presidents, except George Washington and John Adams, were nominated.

But as roads and canals multiplied, as more people gained the right to vote, as newspapers increased in number, and as public men became more widely known, dissatisfaction with the caucus grew. Such a method of nomination, it was said, was not in harmony with the Constitution; it gave the people no chance to choose their candidates for office; by it legislators could practically dictate all governmental matters. In the election of 1824 "King Caucus" was so discredited, so far as national politics were concerned, that thereafter presidential candidates did not care to have it put their names before the country; instead they preferred nomination by announcements in newspapers or by mass meetings.

The national convention. By 1832 a new method of nominating candidates and determining party policies came into existence, which proved so practical and democratic that with a few changes it has been used ever since. This method was the national party convention. The national convention was first used by the Antimasons. In 1830 the leaders of the anti-secret-society movement invited all who shared their views to send delegates to Baltimore the next year to select candidates for the presidency and vice presidency. Their example was followed by the Whigs, or National Republicans, as they were then called, who in 1831 and again in 1832 sent delegates to national conventions; these delegates nominated Clay for the presidency and drew up a platform in which they stated their views on the questions of the day. The Democrats also held a convention in 1832; but, unlike the other gatherings, its chief work was to name a candidate for the vice presidency, the candidacy of Jackson for the presidency being a foregone conclusion. In 1848 the appointment, by the Democratic convention, of a national committee to direct the campaign completed the three chief phases of national party organization.

At first, delegates to the national conventions were elected by mass meetings, by local conventions, and by legislative caucuses. These different methods of selection naturally led to confusion. Occasionally two delegations from the same state would appear, each claiming to be its rightful representative. The necessity of deciding such controversies caused definite rules to be drawn up to govern the choice of delegates. Indeed, so important did political parties and their practices become that, although at first they were looked upon as purely private organizations, by the present time every state in the Union has found it necessary to regulate them by law.

The primary. Today candidates for local offices, delegates to political conventions, and members of local party committees are usually chosen at primaries. In a few states a

A NATIONAL POLITICAL CONVENTION

A national convention, with the thousands of delegates and visitors, is a scene of animation and excitement. The members of a delegation usually stay at the same hotel and sit in the same section of the convention hall.

primary is a mass meeting of the voters of a party where candidates for local offices are nominated and party views are expressed. In most states, however, a primary is an election of party candidates conducted in practically the same way as a regular election—voters go to the polls, receive ballots, and mark and deposit them in the ordinary way. Only the supporters of the party, of course, are expected to vote in the party primary.

To protect elections, practically all states now require a voter to register once a year or every two years; in registering he is required to give his name, address, and age. Candidates for the party nomination may have their names placed on the primary ballot upon petition by a certain number of voters; usually from 5 to 10 per cent of those who voted in the last election are required. The person who receives the largest vote in the primary becomes the nominee of the party in the approaching election. In recent years the primary has been extended to include state officers, members of Congress, and delegates to the national convention. Since 1912 a number of states have also had presidential primaries, in which voters may express their preference for candidates for the presidency.

Conventions. County, district, and state conventions are held in various states, to choose the candidates, delegates, and party officials whose selection is not already provided for by the state primary law; these conventions also often express opinions on public questions. Thus, a county convention may nominate candidates for county offices, elect delegates to the state convention, and appoint a county committee to look after party interests in the county; a state convention may nominate state officers, elect delegates at large to the national convention, adopt a platform of principles, and select members of the state committee which is to serve the party during the next four years.

Permanent and temporary party machinery. From this description it can be seen that party machinery is of two

kinds: (1) the permanent organization, consisting of ward, county, congressional, state, and national committees whose members are always ready to serve the party; and (2) the temporary organization, consisting of local, district, state, and national conventions which meet at certain times to nominate candidates, elect party officials, and decide party policies.¹

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What is a caucus? How did the congressional caucus violate the spirit of the Constitution? Are caucuses held nowadays?

2. What is a primary? In what way is a primary more important than a regular election? Compare the number of people who voted in your community at the last general primary with the number who voted at the last general election (secure the figures from the back files of a local newspaper).

SECTION III. THE BALLOT AND THE VOTER

Early methods of voting. In the days of our great-grandparents people went to the polls at election time and expressed their choice for candidates by word of mouth in the hearing of all the bystanders. This plan made it hard for many citizens to vote as they really wished. A workman might lose his job if he did not vote as his employer suggested, or he might lose his friends by supporting candidates whom they disliked. Oral voting also encouraged bribery, since the vote-buyer could always tell whether the voter "delivered the goods."

By 1860 most states had given up oral voting, in favor of printed ballots. At first each voter prepared his own ballot; then candidates and political managers had ballots printed, which they distributed in the community. Since each party printed its ballots on paper of different colors, the onlookers could tell how everyone voted, by the color of his ballot.

¹J. A. Woodburn, *Political Parties and Party Problems*, pp. 151, 199-204.

Employers or bosses were able, therefore, to manage voters quite as easily as they had been when voting was oral. In addition, the private printing and control of ballots made it easy to "stuff" the ballot box; that is, to put in more than one ballot when voting.

Australian ballot. These evils brought about the gradual adoption of a system of voting used first in Australia. In 1888 this system was introduced in Louisville, Kentucky; it was next established in Massachusetts; and within a short time it had spread to all parts of the country. It has now been adopted, at least in part, by every state in the Union.

The chief features of the Australian system of voting are as follows: first, all ballots are furnished by public officials at public expense; second, the names of all candidates are placed on the same ballot—sometimes in columns by parties, sometimes in alphabetical order under the titles of the various offices; third, the ballot is prepared in secret, folded so that no one can tell how it is marked, and then placed unopened in the ballot box.

The "party column" ballot is used in most states. It tends to make the voter cast his ballot for all the candidates of the party (that is, to vote a "straight ticket"), since all he needs to do in marking his ballot is to place a cross mark in the circle at the top of the column; naturally the "party column" is the favorite form of ballot with politicians. On the other hand, the "office column" ballot encourages independent, intelligent voting, since a person must indicate by a cross mark each candidate for whom he votes and thus must look over the entire ballot.

A few communities have introduced voting-machines. Where they are used the voter records his vote by pulling knobs or handles on the machine instead of by putting marks on a ballot. Since the machine counts each vote as it is registered, the result is known as soon as the polls close. In spite of this advantage the machine is opposed by many people because of its cost, complexity, and influence on

independent voting. Since the machine is confusing and citizens are usually allowed but one or two minutes to use it, most people will vote a "straight ticket" rather than

AN OFFICE-COLUMN BALLOT

In this ballot the candidates are arranged in groups under the names of the various offices. What is the chief argument in favor of such a ballot? This facsimile shows a part of an official ballot used in New York.

bother to study out what levers to pull in order to show their real preference among the different candidates for office.

The long ballot. When a voter goes to the polling-place today he is handed a ballot on which, as a rule, hundreds of

names are printed. In the presidential election of 1920, Chicago voters had to mark a ballot containing the names of several candidates for each of more than seventy offices. In addition to choosing presidential electors, a United States

senator, and three representatives in Congress (one from his district and two from the state as a whole), he was expected to vote, first, for such state officers as governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, attorney-general, auditor, treasurer, senator, and representatives in the general assembly; second, for such county officers as recorder, surveyor, state's attorney, coroner, and members of various boards; third, for three trustees of the sanitary district; and, fourth, for judges of the municipal, county, and circuit courts.

VOTING-MACHINE

To vote the ticket "straight" the upper levers are used; small levers below make it possible to "scratch" the ticket, or to vote for candidates of different parties. The votes are registered as they are cast, and it is possible to know the result in any precinct as soon as the polls are closed. What are the chief objections to the voting machine?

Including the primaries, the Chicago voter was supposed during 1920 to take part in

seven different elections. Within the course of a few years he was expected to select persons for four hundred and seventeen different offices. The burden was equally great in many other communities. In an election in New York City some years ago the ballot was fourteen feet long; in the average

schoolroom it would have reached from the ceiling to the floor. In Philadelphia the people had to fill more positions by election than did the inhabitants of either New York or Chicago.

A citizen cannot choose intelligently, of course, from among the hundreds of candidates whose names appear on the average ballot. Neither the newspapers nor the campaign speakers can aid him much by discussing their merits. Among so many candidates no one but an "expert" could remember their fitness for office, even if he were able to discover it.

The ordinary voter, as a rule, can vote intelligently for president, United States senator, governor, and mayor. He may have reasons for his vote for even representative in Congress, state senator, and alderman. But when it comes to casting his ballot for state treasurer, county clerk, university trustees, and municipal judges, he must of necessity vote blindly.

You will have no difficulty in proving these statements. Ask your father, uncle, or big brother to name the city clerk, county coroner, or state auditor for whom he voted at the last election; the chances are ten to one that you will get "I don't know" for an answer, and most people will give the same reply. Immediately following an election in New York a few years ago, the voters in one of the "better class" districts were asked to name the state treasurer who had just been elected; 87 per cent of them did not know. Eighty-five per cent could not name their alderman and 70 per cent were unable to tell who their new assemblyman was.¹ Their ignorance was no disgrace—few people could have done better, or indeed as well; most of them had voted the "ticket" on nine tenths of the candidates because they knew nothing better to do.

The chief evil in the long ballot is that, although it has the appearance of democracy, it puts the real selection of

¹P. L. Kaye, *Readings in Civil Government*, p. 385.

most of our officials in the hands of those who are in politics for what they can get out of it, not for the service they can render. By "naming" the candidates in the caucus or the primary, the "boss" or the "ring," who so frequently control the party organization, really determine who shall be elected. In such case the government is operated for the benefit of a few instead of for the good of all.

Short ballot. To remedy this evil of "invisible" government, the short ballot has been proposed. By it only four or five officials at most would be elected at any one time. All minor positions would be filled by appointment. Under this plan a voter would have no difficulty in choosing intelligently from among the various candidates, since their number would be small enough for him to learn about their fitness for the offices in question.

The short ballot has been used for years in France, Great Britain, and Canada. The French ballot never contains more than two offices at a time,—usually only one. In our own national elections we already have a short ballot, since the voters elect only the president, vice president, senators, and representatives. It is also in use, in part, in the seven hundred cities which have established commission or city-manager government. Its extension in state and local elections has been urged by such leaders as Roosevelt, Taft, and Wilson. Its adoption would do more to bring about real democracy than would any other single political reform.

Attitude of voters toward political parties. It is hard to say what the attitude of a voter should be toward a political party. Some people feel that they can best promote the welfare of their country by refusing to join the party organization; in this way, they maintain, they are free to support whatever candidates they please, regardless of the party to which they belong; they can also approve the policies which appeal to them, without being fettered by party ties. On the other hand, there are those who feel that, since political parties rule the state in a democratic country, rogues will control

affairs if honest folk refuse to join the organization; they maintain that the independent voter has no part in determining the policies of parties or in selecting their candidates—he can only choose between them; thus, in the real management of the government, they insist, he will have little or no influence unless he is a member of a political party.

WAITING FOR ELECTION RETURNS

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- The last days of a close presidential campaign are filled with excitement. In the cities immense crowds generally gather in the streets to receive the election returns as they are flashed on bulletin boards by enterprising newspapers.

Loyalty to party, in short, is a matter each person must decide for himself. He who remembers that a political organization is only a tool for the advancement of the common good and that it should be deserted when those who control it forget its real purpose would do well to join a party and use his influence to determine its policies, select its candidates, and manage its affairs. But if party membership should lead him to act on the principle of "My party, right or wrong," it would be better for him to remain independent.

Nonpartisan associations. To help citizens vote intelligently in local and state elections, in which national politics should have little or no part, nonpartisan organizations have been formed in recent years, especially in large cities, to publish the records and qualifications of candidates and to recommend those who in their opinion should be elected. The Civic Leagues of such cities as Cleveland, St. Louis, and Boston and the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago have done excellent work along this line. City clubs, civil-service-reform associations, and law-and-order leagues have also promoted good government.

The welfare of our country, however, does not depend on governmental machinery or on private clubs so much as on the ideals and practices of those who live in it,—its men and women, its boys and girls. Realizing this fact,

THE GOOD CITIZEN SAYS

I am a citizen of America and an heir to all her greatness and renown. The health and happiness of my own body depend upon each muscle and nerve and drop of blood doing its work in its place.

So the health and happiness of my country depend upon each citizen doing his work in his place.

I will not fill any post or pursue any business where I can live upon my fellow citizens without doing them useful service in return, for I plainly see that this must bring suffering and want to some of them. I will do nothing to desecrate the soil of America or pollute her air or degrade her children, my brothers and sisters.

I will try to make her cities beautiful and her citizens healthy and happy, so that she may be a desired home for myself now and for her children in days to come.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What are the chief objections to oral voting? to the candidates' distributing ballots? Is a person allowed to discuss politics in a polling-place? If not, why not?

2. What is meant by the "short ballot"? What are its advantages? How could it be established in your state?

3. Count the names of the candidates on the ballot used in your community at the last general election. If you were making it a "short ballot," which offices should you have filled by appointment? to whom should you give the power of appointment in each case? What would be necessary to bring about the change?

4. What is a political machine? a political boss? How does each secure power?

5. What are the chief differences between the national conventions of the Republican and Democratic parties?

6. What state has the largest electoral vote? the smallest? What is the vote of your state? (See Appendix B.)

7. Why should national politics play no part in local elections?

8. Is there a municipal voters' league or a similar organization in your community? How can a person join it? What does it do? Is there any danger in such an organization? Explain.

9. Platforms are sometimes said to be "honey to catch flies"; explain what is meant. They are also said to be "something to get in on, not to stand on"; what is meant? Could the same things ever be said with equal truth of the candidates? (See chap. viii, "Why Great Men are not chosen Presidents," in Bryce's "American Commonwealth," Vol. I.)

10. Which should chiefly determine one's vote—the candidate or the platform? Why?

1. Explain the quotations at the head of the chapter.

2. Stage a mock national political convention. (See G. A. McPheters, G. J. A. Cleaveland, and S. W. Jones, *Citizenship Dramatized*, pp. 167–188.)

QUESTIONS FOR DEBATE

Resolved, that every voter should become a member of a political party.

Resolved, that the expenses of national political campaigns should be limited by Congress and should be paid out of the national Treasury.

Resolved, that all qualified voters, physically capable, who do not take part in an election should be punished by fine or imprisonment.

TOPICS FOR COMPOSITIONS

Amusing Features of Political Campaigns
 Why I favor the Republican (or Democratic) Party
 The "Hard Cider and Log Cabin" Campaign
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 A Visit to a Political Convention

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APPENDIX A

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

PREAMBLE

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. CONGRESS

All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.¹

SECTION 2. HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Election of Members. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

Qualifications. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Apportionment. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers,² which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons.³ The actual

¹ The term of each Congress is two years. It assembles on the first Monday in December and "expires at noon of the fourth of March next succeeding the beginning of its second regular session, when a new Congress begins."

² The apportionment under the census of 1910 is one representative for every 212,407 persons.

³ The word "persons" refers to slaves. The word "slave" nowhere appears in the Constitution. This paragraph has been amended (Amendments XIII and XIV) and is no longer in force.

enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative: and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

Vacancies. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority¹ thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

Officers. Impeachment. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker² and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3. SENATE

Number of Senators: Election. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote. [Repealed in 1913 by Amendment XVII.]

Classification. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive¹ thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies. [Modified by Amendment XVII.]

Qualifications. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

President of Senate. The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

Officers. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

Trials of Impeachment. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation.

¹ Governor.

² The Speaker, who presides, is one of the representatives; the other officers — clerk, sergeant-at-arms, postmaster, chaplain, doorkeeper, etc. — are not.

When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in Case of Conviction. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4. BOTH HOUSES

Manner of electing Members. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.¹

Meetings of Congress. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5. THE HOUSES SEPARATELY

Organization. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Rules. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Journal. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Adjournment. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6. PRIVILEGES AND DISABILITIES OF MEMBERS

Pay and Privileges of Members. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their

¹ This is to prevent Congress from fixing the places of meeting of the state legislatures.

attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

Prohibitions on Members. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7. METHOD OF PASSING LAWS

Revenue Bills. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

How Bills become Laws. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Resolutions, etc. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8. POWERS GRANTED TO CONGRESS

Powers of Congress. The Congress shall have power:

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States ;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes ;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States ;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures ;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States ;

To establish post-offices and post-roads ;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries ;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court ;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations ;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal,¹ and make rules concerning captures on land and water ;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years ;

To provide and maintain a navy ;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces ;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions ;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States,² and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings ; — And

Implied Powers. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.³

¹ Letters granted by the government to private citizens in time of war, authorizing them, under certain conditions, to capture the ships of the enemy.

² The District of Columbia.

³ This is the famous elastic clause of the Constitution.

SECTION 9. POWERS FORBIDDEN TO THE UNITED STATES

Absolute Prohibitions on Congress. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.¹

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus² shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder³ or ex-post-facto law⁴ shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken. [Extended by Amendment XVI.]

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION 10. POWERS FORBIDDEN TO THE STATES

Absolute Prohibitions on the States. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex-post-facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

Conditional Prohibitions on the States. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports,

¹ This refers to the foreign slave trade. "Persons" means "slaves." In 1808 Congress prohibited the importation of slaves. This clause is, of course, no longer in force.

² An official document requiring an accused person who is in prison awaiting trial to be brought into court to inquire whether he may be legally held.

³ A special legislative act by which a person may be condemned to death or to outlawry or banishment without the opportunity of defending himself which he would have in a court of law.

⁴ A law relating to the punishment of acts committed before the law was passed.

shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships-of-war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT

SECTION I. PRESIDENT AND VICE-PRESIDENT

Term. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected, as follows:

Electors. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

Proceedings of Electors and of Congress. [¹ The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said house shall, in like manner, choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.]

¹ This paragraph in brackets has been superseded by the Twelfth Amendment.

Time of choosing Electors. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.¹

Qualifications of President. No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

Vacancy. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.²

Salary. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Oath. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2. POWERS OF THE PRESIDENT

Military Powers; Reprieves and Pardons. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

Treaties; Appointments. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United

¹ The electors are chosen on the Tuesday next after the first Monday in November, preceding the expiration of a presidential term. They vote (by Act of Congress of February 3, 1887) on the second Monday in January for President and Vice-President. The votes are counted, and declared in Congress on the second Wednesday of the following February.

² This has now been provided for by the Presidential Succession Act of 1886.

States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

Filling of Vacancies. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3. DUTIES OF THE PRESIDENT

Message; Convening of Congress. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information¹ of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4. IMPEACHMENT

Removal of Officers. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT

SECTION 1. UNITED STATES COURTS

Courts established; Judges. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2. JURISDICTION OF UNITED STATES COURTS

Federal Courts in General. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; — to all cases

¹ The president gives this information through a message to Congress at the opening of each session. Washington and John Adams read their messages in person to Congress. Jefferson, however, sent a written message to Congress. This method was followed until President Wilson returned to the earlier custom.

may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article ; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI. GENERAL PROVISIONS

Public Debt. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

Supremacy of Constitution. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof ; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land ; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

Official Oath ; Religious Test. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution ; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION

Ratification. The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.¹

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

¹ There were sixty-five delegates chosen to the convention : ten did not attend ; sixteen declined or failed to sign ; thirty-nine signed. Rhode Island sent no delegates.

| NEW HAMPSHIRE | PENNSYLVANIA | VIRGINIA |
|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| JOHN LANGDON | BENJAMIN FRANKLIN | JOHN BLAIR |
| NICHOLAS GILMAN | THOMAS MIFFLIN | JAMES MADISON, JR. |
| | ROBERT MORRIS | |
| MASSACHUSETTS | GEORGE CLYMER | NORTH CAROLINA |
| NATHANIEL GORHAM | THOMAS FITZSIMONS | WILLIAM BLOUNT |
| RUFUS KING | JARED INGERSOLL | RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT |
| | JAMES WILSON | HUGH WILLIAMSON |
| CONNECTICUT | GOUVERNEUR MORRIS | |
| WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON | DELAWARE | |
| ROGER SHERMAN | GEORGE READ | SOUTH CAROLINA |
| | GUNNING BEDFORD, JR. | JOHN RUTLEDGE |
| NEW YORK | JOHN DICKINSON | CHARLES C. PINCKNEY |
| ALEXANDER HAMILTON | RICHARD BASSETT | CHARLES PINCKNEY |
| | JACOB BROOM | PIERCE BUTLER |
| NEW JERSEY | MARYLAND | |
| WILLIAM LIVINGSTON | JAMES M'HENRY | GEORGIA |
| DAVID BREARLEY | DANIEL OF ST. THOMAS | WILLIAM FEW |
| WILLIAM PATERSON | JENIFER | ABRAHAM BALDWIN |
| JONATHAN DAYTON | DANIEL CARROLL | |

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, Secretary

AMENDMENTS

Religion, Speech, Press, Assembly, Petition. ARTICLE I.¹ Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

Militia. ARTICLE II. A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Soldiers. ARTICLE III. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Unreasonable Searches. ARTICLE IV. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon

¹ These amendments were proposed by Congress and ratified by the legislatures of the several states, pursuant to the fifth article of the Constitution. The first ten were offered in 1789 and adopted before the close of 1791. They were for the most part the work of Madison. They are frequently called the Bill of Rights, as their purpose is to guard more efficiently the rights of the people and of the states.

probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Criminal Prosecutions. ARTICLE V. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Suits at Common Law. ARTICLE VII. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of common law.

Bail, Punishments. ARTICLE VIII. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Reserved Rights and Powers. ARTICLE IX. The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X. The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

Suits against States. ARTICLE XI.¹ The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against any of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

Method of electing President and Vice-President. ARTICLE XII.² The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate;—

¹ Proposed in 1794; ratified in 1798.

² Ratified in 1804.

the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; — the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

Slavery abolished. ARTICLE XIII.¹ *Section 1.* Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Negroes made Citizens. ARTICLE XIV.² *Section 1.* All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Section 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of

¹ Ratified in 1865.

² Ratified in 1868.

the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

Section 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

Section 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

Section 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

Negroes made Voters. ARTICLE XV.¹ *Section 1.* The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

Section 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Income Tax. ARTICLE XVI.² The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII.² The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures.

Direct Election of Senators. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided, that the Legislature of any State may empower the Executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the Legislature may direct.

This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

¹ Ratified in 1870.

² Ratified in 1913.

National Prohibition. ARTICLE XVIII.¹ *Section 1.* After one year from the ratification of this article the manufacture, sale, or transportation of intoxicating liquors within, the importation thereof into, or the exportation thereof from the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof for beverage purposes is hereby prohibited.

Section 2. The Congress and the several States shall have concurrent power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

Section 3. This article shall be inoperative unless it shall have been ratified as an amendment to the Constitution by the Legislatures of the several States, as provided in the Constitution, within seven years from the date of the submission hereof to the States by the Congress.

Woman Suffrage. ARTICLE XIX.² *Section 1.* The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.

Section 2. Congress shall have power, by appropriate legislation, to enforce the provisions of this article.

¹ Ratified in 1919.

² Ratified in 1920.

APPENDIX B
INTERESTING FACTS ABOUT THE UNITED STATES

| NAMES OF STATES | ENTERED THE UNION | | AREA IN 1920 | POPULATION | | RANK IN 1920 | NUMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES IN CONGRESS | | ELECTORAL VOTE | | EDUCATIONAL RANK ACCORDING TO AYRES | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|------|--------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|---------------------------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|-------------------------------------|------|------|
| | Order | Date | | Square Miles | 1910 | | 1920 | 1913-1923 | 1923-1933 | 1912-1920 | 1924-1928 | 1910 | 1918 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Alabama | 22 | 1819 | 51,998 | 2,138,093 | 2,348,174 | 18 | 10 | 10 | 12 | 12 | 44 | 45 | |
| Arizona | 48 | 1912 | 113,956 | 204,354 | 334,162 | 45 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 17 | 3 | |
| Arkansas | 25 | 1836 | 53,335 | 1,574,449 | 1,752,204 | 25 | 7 | 7 | 9 | 9 | 45 | 46 | |
| California | 31 | 1850 | 158,297 | 2,377,549 | 3,426,861 | 8 | 11 | 14 | 13 | 16 | 2 | 2 | |
| Colorado | 38 | 1876 | 103,498 | 799,024 | 939,629 | 33 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 12 | 13 | |
| Connecticut | 5 | 1788 | 4,965 | 1,114,756 | 1,380,631 | 29 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 11 | 10 | |
| Delaware | 1 | 1787 | 2,370 | 202,302 | 223,003 | 46 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 33 | 35 | |
| Florida | 27 | 1845 | 58,666 | 752,619 | 968,470 | 32 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 41 | 37 | |
| Georgia | 4 | 1788 | 59,265 | 2,609,121 | 2,895,832 | 12 | 12 | 12 | 14 | 14 | 43 | 43 | |
| Idaho | 43 | 1890 | 83,888 | 325,594 | 431,866 | 42 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 19 | 17 | |
| Illinois | 21 | 1818 | 56,665 | 5,638,591 | 6,485,280 | 3 | 27 | 27 | 29 | 29 | 10 | 22 | |
| Indiana | 19 | 1816 | 36,354 | 2,700,876 | 2,930,390 | 11 | 13 | 12 | 15 | 14 | 16 | 16 | |
| Iowa | 29 | 1846 | 56,147 | 2,224,771 | 2,404,021 | 16 | 11 | 10 | 13 | 12 | 29 | 6 | |
| Kansas | 34 | 1861 | 82,158 | 1,690,949 | 1,769,257 | 24 | 8 | 7 | 10 | 9 | 23 | 25 | |
| Kentucky | 15 | 1792 | 40,598 | 2,289,905 | 2,416,630 | 15 | 11 | 10 | 13 | 12 | 39 | 41 | |
| Louisiana | 18 | 1812 | 48,506 | 1,656,388 | 1,798,509 | 22 | 8 | 7 | 10 | 9 | 38 | 42 | |
| Maine | 23 | 1820 | 33,040 | 742,371 | 768,014 | 35 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 30 | 32 | |
| Maryland | 7 | 1788 | 12,327 | 1,295,346 | 1,449,661 | 28 | 6 | 6 | 8 | 8 | 32 | 34 | |
| Massachusetts | 6 | 1788 | 8,266 | 3,366,416 | 3,852,356 | 6 | 16 | 16 | 18 | 18 | 3 | 8 | |
| Michigan | 26 | 1837 | 57,980 | 2,810,173 | 3,668,412 | 7 | 13 | 15 | 15 | 17 | 18 | 9 | |
| Minnesota | 32 | 1858 | 84,682 | 2,075,708 | 2,387,125 | 17 | 10 | 10 | 12 | 12 | 20 | 18 | |

| NAMES OF STATES | ENTERED THE UNION | | AREA IN 1920 Square Miles | POPULATION | | RANK IN 1920 | NUMBER OF REPRESENTATIVES IN CONGRESS | | ELECTORAL VOTE | | EDUCATIONAL RANK ACCORDING TO AYRES | |
|-----------------|-------------------|------|------------------------------|------------|------------|--------------|---------------------------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|-------------------------------------|------|
| | Order | Date | | 1910 | 1920 | | 1913-1923 | 1923-1933 | 1912-1920 | 1924-1928 | 1910 | 1918 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mississippi | 20 | 1817 | 46,865 | 1,797,114 | 1,790,618 | 23 | 8 | 7 | 10 | 9 | 46 | 47 |
| Missouri | 24 | 1821 | 69,240 | 3,293,335 | 3,404,055 | 9 | 16 | 14 | 18 | 16 | 31 | 31 |
| Montana | 41 | 1889 | 146,997 | 376,053 | 548,889 | 39 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 1 |
| Nebraska | 37 | 1867 | 77,520 | 1,192,214 | 1,296,372 | 31 | 6 | 5 | 8 | 7 | 21 | 21 |
| Nevada | 36 | 1864 | 110,690 | 81,875 | 77,407 | 49 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 15 |
| New Hampshire | 9 | 1788 | 9,341 | 430,572 | 443,083 | 41 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 27 | 27 |
| New Jersey | 3 | 1787 | 8,224 | 2,537,167 | 3,155,900 | 10 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 5 | 4 |
| New Mexico | 47 | 1912 | 122,634 | 327,301 | 360,350 | 43 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 37 | 28 |
| New York | 11 | 1788 | 49,204 | 9,113,614 | 10,385,227 | 1 | 43 | 43 | 45 | 45 | 7 | 12 |
| North Carolina | 12 | 1789 | 52,426 | 2,206,287 | 2,559,123 | 14 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 47 | 44 |
| North Dakota | 39 | 1889 | 70,837 | 577,056 | 646,872 | 36 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 26 | 14 |
| Ohio | 17 | 1803 | 41,040 | 4,767,121 | 5,759,394 | 4 | 22 | 24 | 24 | 26 | 13 | 11 |
| Oklahoma | 46 | 1907 | 70,057 | 1,657,155 | 2,028,283 | 21 | 8 | 8 | 10 | 10 | 34 | 33 |
| Oregon | 33 | 1859 | 96,699 | 672,765 | 783,389 | 34 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 14 | 19 |
| Pennsylvania | 2 | 1787 | 45,126 | 7,665,111 | 8,720,017 | 2 | 36 | 36 | 38 | 38 | 15 | 20 |
| Rhode Island | 13 | 1790 | 1,248 | 542,610 | 604,397 | 38 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 9 | 24 |
| South Carolina | 8 | 1788 | 30,989 | 1,515,400 | 1,683,724 | 26 | 7 | 7 | 9 | 9 | 48 | 48 |
| South Dakota | 40 | 1889 | 77,615 | 583,888 | 636,547 | 37 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 25 | 26 |
| Tennessee | 16 | 1796 | 42,022 | 2,184,789 | 2,337,885 | 19 | 10 | 10 | 12 | 12 | 42 | 40 |
| Texas | 28 | 1845 | 265,896 | 3,896,542 | 4,663,228 | 5 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 36 | 36 |
| Utah | 45 | 1896 | 84,990 | 373,351 | 449,396 | 40 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 8 | 7 |
| Vermont | 14 | 1791 | 9,564 | 355,956 | 352,428 | 44 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 28 | 29 |
| Virginia | 10 | 1788 | 42,627 | 2,061,612 | 2,309,187 | 20 | 10 | 10 | 12 | 12 | 40 | 39 |
| Washington | 42 | 1889 | 69,127 | 1,141,990 | 1,356,621 | 30 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 1 | 5 |
| West Virginia | 35 | 1863 | 24,170 | 1,221,119 | 1,463,701 | 27 | 6 | 6 | 8 | 8 | 35 | 38 |
| Wisconsin | 30 | 1848 | 56,066 | 2,333,860 | 2,632,067 | 13 | 11 | 11 | 13 | 13 | 22 | 30 |
| Wyoming | 44 | 1890 | 97,194 | 145,965 | 194,402 | 47 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 24 | 23 |

INDEX

References are to pages. Marked letters sound as in lāte, fāt, fār, lāst, India, mē, sēt, bēgin, hēr, angel, rīce, līt, gō, ōn, ōbey, cōrn, ūse, ūp, fūr, tōol, iŋk (ink); aw as in law, N running into the preceding vowel as in French mon (mon)

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